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ABSTRACT

The purposes of this study were to determine opinions and attitudes of selected Head Start trainees toward poverty, prejudice and disadvantaged families, and whether attitudes differed among trainees. The 62 subjects were trainees (ranging in age from 19 to 69 years) who attended one of three 8-week training sessions conducted by the Department of Family and Child Development at Kansas State University in 1966. Data sources were an information checklist, and attitude scale, and opinions expressed in an essay and in informal group discussions. Study findings showed that the Head Start trainees' opinions about poverty, prejudice and disadvantaged families varied widely. Race, education and occupation appeared to be the most important indicators of these opinions and attitudes. This study points out the need for training staff personnel to understand and accept opinions and attitudes of trainees who participate in programs sponsored by the Office of Economic Opportunity. In order to effectively teach, the training personnel need to help trainees start where they are in the learning process. (Author/MK)

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OPINIONS AND ATTITUDES OF HEAD START TRAINEES TOWARD POVERTY AND PREJUDICE

Project No. CG-9836

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Manhattan, Kansas

1971

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 was designed to combat poverty in the United States. The philosophy behind the act was that every individual should have the opportunity to contribute and participate to the full extent of his capabilities in order for a society to achieve its full economic and social potential.

The Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO) was established as the administrative body for the many programs and services provided for in the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. Various administrative adjustments have been made since that time which have no direct bearing on this report.

Title II-A of the Economic Opportunity Act encouraged the establishment of Community Action Programs (CAP) in local communities and provided financial and professional assistance to them. These programs were designed to provide help on Indian Reservations, aid migrant workers, and assist urban and rural communities combat poverty by providing stimulation and incentives to mobilize their resources. These CAP programs provided a coordinated network of positive approaches to fight illiteracy, unemployment, poor health, and poor housing. Included in the CAP programs were the areas of early childhood development, remedial education, literacy courses, job development and training, day care, homemaker services, community organization, legal aid to the poor, and health services.

One phase of the CAP program, early childhood development (Head Start), provided up to 90 per cent federal financing to communities who organized and operated preschool child development centers. The goal of these centers was to create an environment which would enable children of the economically disadvantaged to more nearly reach their full potential. In addition to preschool experiences, Head Start provided diagnostic, remedial and developmental services including health, social and psychological assistance. It also included a parent education component and stressed the necessity of involving parents in both operation and policy making decisions.

The role of the Community Development Center was described by the planning committee for Head Start as follows:

> The Child Development Center is both a concept and a community facility. In concept it represents the drawing together of all those resources--family, community and professional--which can contribute to the child's total development. It draws heavily on the professional skills of persons in nutrition, health, education, psychology, social work and recreation. It recognizes both paid and volunteer non-professionals can make important contributions. Finally, the concept emphasizes the family is fundamental to the child's development. Parents should play an important role in developing policies; will work in the Centers and participate in the programs (OEO, 1965a, p. 1).

Although the needs of all children are basically the same, children of the poor lack many experiences and learning opportunities which are a natural part of the average American child's environment. Therefore, there is strong need for the teachers and staff working with Head Start children not only to understand preschool children, but their cultural background and special needs.

Since teachers and teacher's aides are key adults in the daily lives of children in Head Start Child Development Centers, the teacher and her aides strongly influence the quality of learning and total growth experiences children have in Head Start. Head Start personnel need special training to make their individual frames of reference relevant to their work in poverty areas. OEO granted funds to certain universities in each of its seven regions to conduct eight-week training programs to help Head Start personnel supplement their training in general preschool education and familiarize them with particular learning needs of disadvantaged children.

Kansas State University received an OEO grant* to conduct three eight-week training programs in early childhood development in January, 1966. These three training programs began in February and ended in early August. Sixty-two trainees were involved in the three sessions. The training programs, conducted by the Department of Family and Child Development, included a study of early childhood development and behavior, curriculum and program planning for young children, exploration of the culture of poverty, and a seminar on coordination of community resources for family development.

Each training session was designed to provide trainees at various educational levels with a course of study and range of experiences that would equip them with knowledge and skills for their specific Child Development Center jobs. These positions ranged from teacher and staff aides to program administrators.

Although specific research designs were not required until the following year, data were collected during the 1966 training sessions for the specific purpose of evaluating the sessions and analyzing some aspects of the program. One Master's thesis dealing with the attitudes and opinions of the trainees toward children (Sukan, 1967) was completed using data obtained from weekly unstructured discussion groups. Other data available included a personal data sheet, an essay entitled "What I Know About Low Income Families" and an attitude scale developed for Head Start workers.

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*OEO Program Number CG-9836 under Title II-A of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964.

The purposes of this study were to ascertain: (1) whether there were differing opinions and attitudes toward poverty and prejudice among Head Start trainees, and (2) the attitudes toward poverty, prejudice and disadvantaged families of those employed as Head Start personnel or who expected to be employed in a Head Start program.

The objectives of the study were:

1. To identify opinions and attitudes of Head Start trainees toward poverty and prejudice expressed in an essay, informal group discussions and on an attitude scale.
2. To compare opinions and attitudes toward poverty and prejudice of Head Start trainees who differ in race, marital status, education, occupation, and age.
3. To analyze Head Start trainees' opinions and attitudes about poverty and prejudice as expressed in informal group discussions, an essay, and on an attitude scale.

The following null hypotheses were tested:

1. There is no relationship between the amount of participation on the topic "Reactions to Selected Conditions" in the informal group discussions and the five independent variables:

   a. race
   b. marital status
   c. education
   d. occupation
   e. age

2. There is no relationship between awareness of prejudice as revealed on the topic "Reactions to Selected Conditions" in the discussion groups and the five independent variables:

   a. race
   b. marital status
   c. education
   d. occupation
   e. age

3. In a written essay "What I Know About Low Income Families," there is no relationship between reference to poverty in:

   a. childhood
   b. present personal conditions
   c. present or past personal acquaintances
   d. unknown or generalized others

   and the five independent variables:

      1. race
      2. marital status
      3. education
      4. occupation
      5. age

4. There is no relationship between the qualitative-quantitative aspects of poverty expressed in the essay "What I Know About Low Income Families" and the five independent variables:

   a. race
   b. marital status
   c. education
   d. occupation
   e. age

5. There is no relationship between attitude scores attained on the Operation Head Start Worker's Attitude Scale and

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the five independent variables:

a. race
b. marital status
c. education
d. occupation
e. age

This chapter provides a brief historical background of the Head Start program. The purposes of the study, its objectives and hypotheses suggest a need to clarify the major concepts and review studies dealing with the opinions and attitudes of people toward disadvantaged families and the effects of special training on attitude change for those working with disadvantaged families.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The concepts of attitudes, opinions, prejudice, low-income, poverty and disadvantaged used throughout this paper are briefly defined. A short discussion of some theoretical considerations dealing with these concepts is included to provide reader background. A review of studies dealing with attitudes revealed the dearth of information available concerning opinions and attitudes of people toward the disadvantaged and a lack of adequate methods in determining these attitudes. The review of literature has been presented in two parts. The first part deals with attitudes, mostly of teachers, toward disadvantaged children. The second part is concerned with teacher attitudes toward the disadvantaged following training sessions designed to initiate attitude change.

Definition of Concepts

Attitudes

Allport (1958), one of the leading contributors to the study of attitudes, defined attitudes as "mental and neural states of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related" (Allport, 1958, p. 23). Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey (1962) suggested that attitudes include positive or negative evaluations, emotional feelings and action tendencies with regard to a given object.

Rokeach's (1968) more complete definition stated that attitudes are interrelated beliefs built upon life's experiences which describe, evaluate, and advocate action tendencies toward an object or situation. He thought each belief has cognitive, affective and behavioral components.

Opinions

Doby (1966) differentiated opinions from attitudes. He believed opinions or beliefs are wholly cognitive and lack the affective or emotional element common to attitudes. Rokeach (1968) described opinions as verbal expressions of a belief, attitude or value. Opinions may represent public beliefs, attitudes or values or they may refer to an individual's tentative set of beliefs, attitudes or values. Cooper and McGough (1966) suggested opinions are tentative and play an important role in the thought process because they represent continual cognitive exploration and summaries.

Prejudice

Several authors have attempted to define prejudice. Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey (1962) described prejudice as emotionally charged, unfavorable attitudes usually resulting from previous stereotypes which are not easily changed. Doby's (1966) definition was similar, but he thought the emotional involvement could be either for or against the object. Hurlock (1964) believed prejudice is the result of a set of attitudes which causes the classifying of those who belong to groups outside one's own as inferior and treatment of them accordingly.

Low Income, Poverty, and Disadvantaged

The concepts low income, poverty, and disadvantaged are commonly used interchangeably and have not been clearly defined. The OEO definition used by the Head Start program is based entirely on economic deprivation. The fact that economically deprived people may have advantages is not considered in this purely economic definition.

According to Noar (1967), poverty often exists among disadvantaged families characterized by chronically unemployed or unemployable fathers, or one-parent homes frequently mother-dominated. They are city slum-dwellers, rural uneducated farmhands, and migrants. Disadvantaged families are represented by lowest social class Negroes, Puerto Ricans, American Indians, Mexican Americans and Caucasians. "Children in these families have too little of everything: too little living space, too little food and sleep, too little personal attention, too little medical and nursing care when sick and too little information about themselves and their world, too little curiosity, too little success, too little self-respect and self-confidence, too little reason to try, too little money and clothing, too little to play with and read, too little happiness" (Noar, 1967, p. 3).

Theoretical Considerations

Attitude Development

According to Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey (1962), an individual's attitude development is influenced by: (1) the process of want satisfaction, (2) the information to which he is exposed, (3) his group affiliation, and (4) his personality. Hawkes (1965) believed attitudes related to problems of racial equality and race relations are deep-rooted and fostered early in a child's life. Clinical evidence indicated attitudes were highly resistant to change.

Purpose of Attitude Research

The purpose of attitude research is to gain insight into aspects of attitude formation and development as well as attitude change. By knowing the attitudes of people, it is possible to understand, predict, control or modify their behavior. For educators and social scientists the prediction of the behavior of others is an important aspect of research.

Problems of Attitude Research

One of the problems of attitude research has been the inconsistency between verbal attitudinal responses of individuals and their actual attitudinal behavior. Miller (1967) suggested that attitude change researchers must develop measurement techniques which result in substantial correlations between verbal attitude measures and other attitudinally related behaviors. He believed that verbal attitude responses alone severely limit the theoretic and social utility of attitude research.

Studies on Groups of People Working With the Disadvantaged

The studies reviewed in this section deal primarily with the attitudes of teachers toward disadvantaged children and their families. Boger (1967) attempted to assess attitudes of 1,000 potential Head Start teachers during an orientation workshop and training session at the University of Texas in June, 1966. The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (MTAI), a Behavior Classification Checklist (BCC), and a Child Attitude Survey (CAS); both developed at the University of Texas, and a series of experimental multiple option rating scales designed to measure teacher attitudes toward various child behavior dimensions and attitudes toward the Head Start program were administered to the trainees. Optimism about the effectiveness of the Head Start program, eagerness to become involved in work with the disadvantaged and ability to identify with culturally deprived children were examined in this study. Results of the study indicated that Mexican-American and Negro teachers entered the training session more optimistic than Anglo teachers about the overall results of the Head Start program, were more enthusiastic about working with deprived children of various ethnic groups and had more empathy for them. The Mexican-American and Negro teachers held more dominative and authoritarian attitudes toward child behavior, but these views tended to decrease with teaching experience. Negro teachers tended to view the causes of child behavior as less environmentally and more biogenically determined than did Mexican-American teachers, who held these views more strongly than Anglo teachers. The majority of the Anglo teachers were from middle class backgrounds, while a greater percentage of the Negro and Mexican-American teachers were from backgrounds similar to those of Head Start children. Boger concluded that on the basis of experiences and understanding, Negro and Mexican-American teachers might be expected to show greater identity with and enthusiasm for involvement in the Head Start program.

Helge and Pierce-Jones (1968) examined the relationship between number of years of teaching experience with deprived children and teacher's attitudes toward the effectiveness of the Head Start program. Participants were 145 female Head Start teachers who attended a workshop in 1965 previous to working with the Head Start program. During another workshop in 1967 they completed autobiographical and experience forms. Most of the teachers were from lower-middle class families and spent most of their childhoods in predominately white areas, but with substantial numbers of Negro and Mexican-American families. Teachers were grouped according to their years of teaching experience and type of school. Significant differences were found in the variables dealing with teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness and acceptance of Head Start, their awareness of the effects of cultural deprivation, their feelings of success as Head Start teachers and their comparisons of Head Start and non-Head Start children from similar environments. All attitudes of all groups of teachers were positive. In most cases, the more general the experience of the teachers, the more stable and positive were her attitudes regarding the above variables. Teachers with no experience and those with six or more years of experience with disadvantaged children also showed more stable and positive attitudes.

Gottlieb's (1964) study attempted to identify similarities and differences between 36 Negro and 53 white elementary teachers in inner-city public schools and their views toward their work and their students of whom approximately 85 per cent were Negro and from low-income families. The Negro teachers tended to be somewhat younger and had less experience in teaching than did the white teachers. They generally came from lower-income families headed by women employed primarily in manual occupations, and were twice as likely to have attended public colleges in urban centers. White teachers were generally raised in middle-class families and came from medium-sized towns. The teachers were interviewed and given an adjective checklist to describe their students. Job satisfaction was related both to years of teaching experience and race. Negro teachers expressed more satisfaction with their jobs in low income schools. White teachers were more critical of either students or their parents while Negro teachers were more likely to be critical of the physical and organizational structure of the school. Gottlieb believed the similarity of the Negro teachers' backgrounds to that of their students made them more realistic than white teachers in their expectations of students and thus more satisfied with their teaching jobs. On the adjective checklist, white teachers used the adjectives talkative, lazy, fun-loving, high-strung and rebellious more frequently to describe their students and tended to avoid adjectives which reflected stability and the desirable qualities one would like children in the classroom to possess. Negro teachers most often described their students as fun-loving, happy, cooperative, energetic and ambitious, qualities which seem to be universal attributes of children. Gottlieb concluded white teachers were more critical and pessimistic in their evaluations of disadvantaged students and thus more dissatisfied with their jobs. Negro teachers, because of their greater personal identification with these children, held more favorable attitudes toward disadvantaged children and their teaching jobs.

Rotter (1966) studied the extent to which values and attitudes of teachers influence their evaluation of children from various socioeconomic and ethnic groups. His subjects included 128 white female teachers taking graduate education courses. The teachers completed 80 items and scales which pertained to social and emotional adjustment of their pupils. Data on the teachers personal backgrounds and personality were also obtained. Vignettes of a nine-year-old pupil using the variables of race, sex, social class and classroom behavior were read to each teacher. Rotter hypothesized that teachers with middle-class backgrounds would evaluate the personal and social adjustment of Negro pupils or pupils of lower socio-economic classes more negatively than those of middle-class or white pupils. None of the data supported his hypothesis that class and racial biases affect teacher ratings and evaluations. This finding is in direct contrast to that found in the previous study by Gottlieb in which he found white teachers more critical in their evaluations of disadvantaged students. Rotter concluded that if biases do exist, they do not influence teacher ratings and evaluations.

Faunce (1969) studied 210 effective and 97 non-effective teachers of the culturally disadvantaged in Minneapolis, Minnesota. He found the following to be unrelated to these teacher's attitudes toward disadvantaged children: sex, years of teaching experience, marital status, region of country in which the teacher was reared, father's occupation and education, degrees held and courses taken on the topic of the disadvantaged child, teaching effectiveness in general as rated by supervising principals, college graduated from, and personality traits as measured by the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI). The following variables were related to the teacher's attitudes toward disadvantaged children: preference for working with disadvantaged children, a high proportion of disadvantaged children in their classes, considerable experience teaching disadvantaged children, and reading books on topics dealing with the disadvantaged. A questionnaire regarding culturally disadvantaged children was administered to teachers of disadvantaged students. Results indicated effective teachers recognized problems of the disadvantaged without rejecting the people and displayed empathy and commitment to teach disadvantaged children. Non-effective teachers tended to be prejudiced and to ignore or deny the physical deprivation students faced and often took a punitive view toward the disadvantaged. In general Negro teachers and those who came from low income backgrounds tended to have more favorable attitudes toward the disadvantaged and were more effective. The effective teachers tended to have a more permissive attitude toward children in general as measured by the MTAI.

A study on the origins of attitudes and instructional practices among teachers of Mexican-American children was reported by Anderson (1969). A questionnaire dealing with the teachers' academic background, experience, career aspirations and instruction practices, and their attitudes toward students, parents, and special programs for disadvantaged minority children was administered to 72 public school math teachers in South El Paso, Texas. The findings revealed that type of professional training received by teachers might be a significant factor in the origin of their attitudes toward disadvantaged minority students. Faunce, however, found that training was not a factor in the attitudes of the teachers he studied. Anderson thought professional training and career aspirations appeared to influence the teachers' approaches, views regarding the value of compensatory and bilingual programs, appraisal of student ability and effort, and the type of student they enjoyed teaching. Teachers who had attended summer institutes or special training programs dealing with education of disadvantaged children appeared more willing to teach in schools that enrolled disadvantaged students than teachers who had never participated in training programs dealing with the problems of the disadvantaged.

They also felt more strongly about the value of, and need for, compensatory programs, including bilingual instruction in the lower grades for Spanish-speaking children.

Freedman's (1965) report dealt with three studies relative to the area of racial attitudes and perception. The article was based on assumptions that: (1) the white population of the United States is racially prejudiced against Negroes, (2) urban teaching staffs composed of mostly white, middle-class teachers have negative racial attitudes, and (3) negative attitudes hinder white, middle-class teacher effectiveness in programs for the deprived child. Six instruments were administered to two groups of student teachers; those who volunteered to participate in a program in "tough" schools and those who rejected the project in favor of working in a middle-class white school. Results indicated that the volunteers had greater need to meet challenges successfully and they displayed greater sympathy for the disadvantaged than did the non-volunteers.

The remaining information in this section is based on knowledge, opinions and observations of the authors rather than on scientific research.

Bettelheim and Janowitz (1964) in Social Change and Prejudice, hypothesized that younger persons are less prejudiced than older persons. They showed that the relationship between age and tolerance is complicated by the fact that young persons are more likely to be better educated and have an education more compatible with ethnic tolerance.

Bettelheim and Janowitz (1964) and Frenkel-Brunswik (1966) both expressed the views that persons in the lower socio-economic classes appear more prejudiced than middle-class individuals, and the less educated tend to express more prejudice than the better educated. However, other variables may become factors.

Jablonsky (1967), in a discussion of attitudes held by college education students and teachers, cited four commonly held views about children and families from deprived neighborhoods: (1) poor parents are uninterested in their children's education, (2) disadvantaged children's intelligence is inferior, (3) disadvantaged children have little or no interest in school, and (4) disadvantaged children cannot be taught in the same way as middle-class children.

Studies on Attitude Change Toward the Disadvantaged

The following studies focus on attitudes and ways of changing attitudes toward the disadvantaged. A study on attitude change reported by Levan (1968) was an evaluation to determine: (1) the effect of Title I in-service teacher training on changes in semantic differential meaning, (2) differences in semantic differential meaning between teachers who did and did not have the training, and (3) the relationships between personality characteristics and changes in attitude accompanying Title I training. The subjects included 50 randomly selected groups of teachers of disadvantaged students in the Southwest who had volunteered for Title I training during the 1966-67 school year. They were compared with teachers who had volunteered for Title I training during the 1965-66 school year, instructional leaders of the 1966-67 in-service project and school district consultants who had Title I training during the 1966-67 school year. Semantic differential was used to measure the attitude potency and activity dimensions of meaning.

One projective and four non-projective instruments were correlate measures. Results indicated that Title I teacher in-service training during the 1966-67 school year did effect attitudinal differences, but there were no attitudinal differences in the other three groups. Levan suggested that measured attitudinal changes may be short term, thus explaining why the 1965-66 in-service trainees showed no attitudinal differences. He explained that the correlate results implied teachers who had higher ego strength and lower mental ability developed more favorable attitudes.

A study dealing with teacher attitude change toward the disadvantaged was conducted by the College of Education at Arizona State University (1968) as part of a Title I in-service project during the 1966-67 school year. Similar to the study reported by Levan, three groups were studied: teachers, instructional leaders and consultants. A control group of teachers who did not receive training was also used. The main source of data again was a semantic differential device which measured the evaluative or attitude, potency, and activity dimensions of meaning. This study also used one projective and four non-projective instruments as correlate measures. The purposes of the study were to measure change in the semantic differential meaning that teachers attributed to certain concepts, to measure the teachers' personality characteristics and to determine the actual correlation between changes in attitude and teacher characteristics. Results indicated teachers and instructional leaders changed their attitudes toward disadvantaged children from unfavorable to favorable following in-service training. Instructional leaders also developed more favorable attitudes toward the curriculum. Although the instructional leaders attitudes toward equality remained unfavorable, they were not as pronounced as before the training sessions. The training had no effect on the attitudes of the consultants. The control group of teachers maintained their unfavorable attitudes toward disadvantaged children during the period of study.

A study reported by Durrett (1969) used the Parent Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) to measure shifts in attitudes toward children by Head Start trainees participating in eight-week teacher training programs at San Jose State College. The program included observation and supervised participation with disadvantaged families. The PARI was administered to three experimental groups and one control group at the beginning and end of each eight-week period. The trainees ranged in age from 21 to 54, with a mean age of 35. Their education ranged from high school to college graduate, most having only a high school education. Each group had an almost equal distribution of Mexican-American, Negro and Anglo trainees. There were twenty-four women and one man in each group, most of whom were employed as aides in Head Start programs in California. The control group showed almost no change in attitudes as measured by the PARI while the experimental groups showed positive shifts in attitudes on 12 of the 23 sub-scales. These scales tended to be concerned primarily with immediate interaction with children and suggested increased understanding of disadvantaged children as a result of the educational program. Whether the attitudinal shifts were accompanied by behavioral shifts is a concern for further study.

There have been few systematic studies of opinions and attitudes of Head Start trainees toward poverty, prejudice, or the disadvantaged.

This writer has sought to present definitions of major concepts and theoretical considerations pertinant to attitude research. Reviews of relevant studies dealing with attitudes of teachers toward the disadvantaged and studies of the effects of workshops and in-service training using disadvantaged children as referents on short-term attitude change provide a basis for interpreting the statistical results of this study and serve as a stimulus for further research.

In summary the following conclusions might be drawn from current literature concerning teachers' attitudes toward the disadvantaged.

1. Teachers who have experienced cultural and/or economic deprivation similar to the children they work with generally identify with and relate to them better than teachers who have not had these experiences.
2. Teachers of different ethnic backgrounds tend to have different attitudes concerning the education and development of disadvantaged children.
3. Teachers' attitudes and some demographic variables such as rural and urban residence and amount of teaching experience appear to be related.
4. Type of professional training may be a significant factor in the origin of teacher attitudes toward disadvantaged children.
5. Training programs dealing with the education of disadvantaged children appear to have a positive effect on the attitudes of the trainees toward working in disadvantaged schools, at least in the short term. One study indicated these changes in attitudes may not persist over a long period

of time.

As indicated by the studies reviewed, results concerning the attitudes of teachers toward the disadvantaged varied depending on the independent variables examined and the instruments used to measure the attitudes. Also, as pointed out early in the chapter, the problem of differences between verbal and behavioral attitudes is very important in attitude research. Several studies pointed out the effectiveness of special training on short-term attitude change toward the disadvantaged, but long-term effects are in doubt.

In order to assist both those working with the disadvantaged and the disadvantaged themselves, researchers need to be able to find reliable methods of determining attitudes and changing them, if needed. This will take many systematic and carefully designed studies. It is hoped that this study, though limited in design,will contribute a small part to the challenge attitude research affords.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Subjects

Subjects of this study were sixty-two trainees who participated in the three eight-week Head Start training sessions. Initially, prospective trainees were informed of the training sessions and selected as trainees by community and regional Head Start personnel. In the first session there were twenty-three trainees, in the second session twenty-six and in the third session thirteen trainees.

Formal classes, guest speakers, films, field trips, informal discussion groups and observation and participation in the Kansas State University Child Development Laboratory and at the Manhattan Head Start Child Development Center provided a variety of learning experiences for the trainees. Trainees were selectively assigned to the discussion groups by the project director, making possible the widest variety of backgrounds with respect to race, sex, educational background and teaching experience. Each discussion group contained five to seven trainees and met one hour weekly.

Each trainee was personally interviewed by participant observers who served as informal leaders for the discussion groups to which the trainees were assigned. Interviews were conducted informally for the purpose of establishing rapport between trainee and participant observer before group meetings began. All trainees were informed about the purpose of the groups, the names of the members and the participant observer for each group.

Instruments

Each trainee filled out an information checklist (Appendix, p. 82) at the beginning of the eight-week session. Items included were designed to obtain factual data on personal background factors such as marital status, age, residence, number of children, educational background, work experience, present employment, participation in community activities, interests and hobbies.

The informal group discussions were a major means of collecting information from the trainees regarding their concerns and feelings during training. All trainees had a common interest in disadvantaged children and their families which facilitated a lively interchange of ideas. Because the groups were structured with participant observers, the majority of the trainees felt free to express their fears, criticisms, worries and hopes and to relate their experiences. The group members became intellectually as well as emotionally involved in the discussions. Trainees were not pressured to resolve any points unless they chose to do so individually.

During one of the beginning meetings of the first two training sessions each trainee wrote an essay entitled "What I Know About Low Income Families." This essay was not used for the third training session.

An Operation Head Start Worker's Attitude Scale (Appendix, p. 85) was completed by trainees from the second and third training sessions. This scale consisted of two parts. The first dealt with attitudes toward the disadvantaged and the second with attitudes toward Head Start children and "most" children. Only the first part was used in this study.

Discussion Group Data

The informal discussion groups met weekly for the purpose of allowing trainees opportunity to express feelings and concerns about on-going training experiences. Staff members of the Department of Family and Child Development not connected with classroom teaching of the trainees served as participant observers for each discussion group. Participant observers remained with one group throughout the session. They participated in some of the field trips and attended lectures by guest speakers along with trainees. The participant observer's function was to facilitate sharing of experiences in the discussion groups.

Data from these weekly discussions were collected by means of: (1) debriefing, and (2) coding and filing. This model was adapted from a project on "Integrative Experiences of College Students," developed and conducted by Dr. Carroll E. Kennedy and Dr. David Danskin of the Center of Student Development at Kansas State University.*

Debriefing

Immediately following each discussion session the participant observer verbally summarized the topics, events, and observations for the project director or another staff member. The goal of this procedure was to understand and interpret the feelings of the group members and the group as a whole.

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*NIMH Project Grant MN 15045, 1968-1969.

Each debriefing session began with a discussion of the climate which prevailed in the group. The participant observer then gave a report on the participation and major concerns of each individual in the group. The session concluded with a recapitulation of the content of the discussion according to topics discussed by various group members.

Information from the debriefing was recorded by the project director on dictating equipment. Multiple copies were made of the dictated material so that it could be coded.

Coding and Filing

The typed material was coded according to eight general topics and twenty-one subtopics (Appendix, p. 88). These topics pertained to the trainees' reactions to the training session experiences and group interaction. Coded material was filed according to: (1) topics, (2) contributions of each trainee, and (3) group climate.

This report is concerned only with the major topic "Reactions to Selected Conditions." Included were the trainees' own experiences with poverty, prejudice, and segregation and their feelings and attitudes toward prejudice and other's experiences with poverty and prejudice (Topic VI of Code Sheet in Appendix, p. 89). The trainees were rated on their apparent awareness of prejudice as verbalized in the group discussions. The total contribution of each trainee was classified according to the following scales:

(1) did not refer to prejudice in any way, or appeared completely oblivious or unaware that prejudice existed,

Example: Mrs. B. seemed as if she was hearing about something of this type for the first time and said "Something's got to be done, but how? What?"

(2) appeared aware of prejudice at the cognitive or knowledge level,

Example: Mr. B. stated there is a caste-like system in the United States,

(3) reported prejudice at the affective or feeling level either by having friends or acquaintances experience prejudice or had experienced prejudice themselves,

Example: From a white trainee: Mrs. W. reported that her son was playing in a Negro baseball league and really didn't know it was, but even after she learned it was her son stayed in it. A person came to her and told her that didn't she know the consequences of such things as associating with Negroes.

After a discussion of the definitions, the writer and an associate individually read each set of statements and classified them according to the above categories. Rater agreement was calculated at .77. Where disagreement occurred, agreement was reached after discussion.

In addition, each trainee was scored as to number of group discussions in which he participated. Three groups emerged: those who participated in no group discussions (none); those who participated in one or two group discussions (moderate); and those who participated in three to five group discussions (much).

Classification of Data From Other Instruments

In order to make the data contained on the essay "What I Know About Low Income Families" suitable for statistical testing, the investigator sought to classify potentially useful variables. Through the process of content analysis two distinct categories became evident.

The first category that emerged from the essay was the trainee's reference to poverty or prejudice:

(1) in childhood;

> Example: Though I have not experienced extreme poverty myself, I can remember times in my childhood when we lived in the basement of an old barn while my father remodeled it into the semblance of a home.

(2) in present personal conditions;

> Example: I have been in a low income home all my life. To me it is normal. You always wish or hope for something a little better, but it is always "Maybe next week" or "maybe next year," never seeming to get to your front door. I have heard my children go to bed crying "I'm hungry" and cry myself to sleep. There is always that little prayer in a mother's heart, "Please God, give us strength."

(3) in present or past personal acquaintances;

> Example: Some of my friends did not even have electric lights, gas, or a modern bathroom. Some days after school I would go home with them to find to my amazement they would have nothing in the house to eat, or the father only possessed enough to buy some milk for the baby. I have had friends whose parents could not even afford to go to a doctor when their family was in need of medical assistance. I've associated with girls who didn't have but two dresses to wear to school and may have shoes with no heels.

(4) in unknown or generalized others.

> Example: There are low income families in every race. There are many different reasons for a family to be poverty stricken - the father may be sick, disabled; he may be an alcoholic or a drug addict, he may not be able to hold down a job because of race discrimination, not enough education.

Each of the above four groupings was rated independently either "yes" or "no" by the investigator and a graduate student in the area. In any one essay, there may have been reference to all four categories. Agreement between raters occurred in 75 per cent of the cases. After discussion on points of disagreement, joint agreement was reached.

A second way in which the essays were classified was according to the trainee's emphasis on the qualitative or quantitative aspects of poverty. Judgment was based upon the impact of the total essay. The qualitative aspect was defined as greater emphasis on the quality of life such as love, respect, sharing among family members and friends, insecurity, sense of hopelessness, and suspicion of others. An example quoted from a Mexican-American male trainee is:

> I have found that many of the parents do not give their children at least one hour a day for a question and answer session, not to mention understanding and compassion for their loved ones. I have seen actual cases when a child will actually ask the father or mother for assistance with their homework and they merely whisk them away by saying "I'm too tired, go ask your mother." Or the parent will say "I'm watching TV." Every child needs love and affection and good parental guidance. When a child keeps making mistakes after mistakes, it doesn't do no harm to praise him for trying.

The quantitative aspect concerned more emphasis on the material things in life such as food, clothing, and housing. A Negro trainee said:

> Until I was eighteen years of age, I never knew what beef tasted like. We lived mainly on beans, greens, potatoes and some pork. There were many Xmas we never received Xmas. We missed some meals when beans and flour weren't available.

A class of forty-five graduate students enrolled in a seminar entitled "Low Income Families" was given copies of each essay. Definitions were presented and discussed, after which each student independently rated each essay. Rater agreement was calculated at .85, the same as that reached by the investigator and an associate. After joint discussion by the investigator and associate, agreement was reached on those essays where disagreement occurred.

The Operation Head Start Worker's Attitude Scale contained thirty items, of which eleven items were positive and nineteen items were negative. These items were weighted with high scores reflecting positive attitudes toward the disadvantaged. The scores on each item ranged from one to five making a possible score of 150. Scores ranged from 99 to 143 for the thirty-seven trainees who completed the attitude scale. A mean was calculated for the thirty-seven scores. Those who scored above the mean made up one category and those who scored at the mean or below were placed in a second category.

Chi square statistics were computed using the Chi Square Program designed by the Computer Center at Kansas State University.* Examples from the essay "What I Know About Low Income Families" and the discussion groups are included as illustrative of the statistical results.

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*Chi Square Program written by Ron Smith of the Kansas State University Computer Center, March 3, 1970.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Description of Trainees

Analysis of the information checklist data revealed great diversity of backgrounds, age, and education among the sixty-two trainees who participated in the Head Start training sessions at Kansas State University. Nine states from the Head Start region were represented. The majority of the trainees were from Kansas (26), Missouri (15), and Colorado (15). There was one trainee each from Idaho, Montana, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Dakota, and Wyoming. A general description of the trainees is presented in Table 1.

Racially, the group was coded into two categories: white (37) and non-white (25) which included eighteen Negroes, six Mexican-Americans, and one American Indian (Table 1). Based on marital status, two categories were established. Approximately one-fourth of the trainees had never married (single - 17) while the remaining participants were either married, divorced, separated or widowed (married - 45).

Education of trainees ranged from seventh grade through graduate study. Trainees were categorized educationally as follows: (1) those with less than a high school diploma (9), (2) those who had high school diplomas, some technical training or less than two years of college (25), and (3) those with two years or more of college training (19). The latter category included teachers with two-year certificates, people

TABLE 1

DESCRIPTION OF HEAD START TRAINEES ENROLLED AT KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY TRAINING SESSIONS, 1966

Category	Number	Per Cent
Race		
White	37	59.7
Non-white	25	40.3
Total	62	100.0
Marital Status		
Single	17	27.4
Married	45	72.6
Total	62	100.0
Education		
Less Than High School Diploma	9	14.5
Less Than Two Years College	25	40.3
Two Years of College or More	28	45.2
Total	62	100.0
Occupation		
Not Employed	20	32.3
Unskilled and Semi-skilled	23	37.1
Skilled and Professional	19	30.6
Total	62	100.0
Age		
19-25	19	30.6
26-40	27	43.5
41 and Over	16	25.8
Total	62	100.0
Residence		
In-State	26	41.9
Out-of-State	36	58.1
Total	62	100.0
Sex		
Male	7	11.3
Female	55	88.7
Total	62	100.0

with four-year degrees, some with graduate study, and two with graduate degrees.

Occupation codes included those not employed (20), those in unskilled or semi-skilled occupations (23), and those in skilled or professional occupations (19). The non-employed group consisted mainly of college students and women who were heads of households. Several were homemakers with some college training who were utilizing the training session as a refresher for becoming Head Start teachers. The unskilled and semi-skilled group included a housekeeper, a dry cleaning employee, licensed practical nurses, steno-clerks, Head Start staff and teachers' aides, a dormitory housemother and private kindergarten teachers. Public school teachers, a Head Start social coordinator and a school administrator made up the skilled and professional group.

The age groups were: (1) nineteen to twenty-five (19), (2) twenty-six to forty (27), and (3) forty-one and over (16). These groups were selected because the trainees' formative years coincided closely with recurring periods of war, depression and prosperity. It was thought that differences in attitudes and opinions might exist between them. The age range was from nineteen to sixty-nine years with a median age of 35.5 years and an average age of 34.6 years for all participants.

Most of the trainees stayed in a university dormitory as a group. A few chose to live off campus and a few commuted, though commuting was discouraged. Many trainees went home for week-ends. Trainees indicated that living in the dormitory provided opportunity for personal interchange of ideas both with fellow trainees and university students.

Head Start Trainee Attitudes

The hypotheses stated in Chapter I were non-parametrically tested for significance by means of chi square tests of independence. Anecdotal comments from the discussion groups and essay "What I Know About Low Income Families" are included to illustrate themes which predominated and served as a basis for the coding categories.

Hypothesis I: There is no relationship between the amount of participation on the topic "Reactions to Selected Conditions" in the informal group discussions and the five independent variables:

a. race
b. marital status
c. education
d. occupation
e. age

A statistical analysis indicated race was related to amount of participation in the group discussions at the .05 level (Table 2). There was greater participation from whites than non-whites. Marital status, education, occupation, and age were not significantly related to this variable. Individual participation by the trainees showed 14 per cent of the white trainees not participating in any group discussions while 40 per cent of the non-white trainees were non-participants (Table 2). Fifty-seven per cent of the white trainees and 48 per cent of the non-white trainees participated in one or two group discussions and 30 per cent of the white and only 12 per cent of the non-white trainees participated in three to five discussions. Only one trainee, a 25-year-old woman with a high school diploma, contributed comments dealing with poverty and prejudice in all five group discussions.

TABLE 2

PARTICIPATION IN GROUP DISCUSSIONS BY HEAD START TRAINEES AT KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY TRAINING SESSIONS, 1966

Independent Variables	Amount of Participation			Chi Square
	None	1-2	3-5	
	N=15	N=33	N=14	
Race				
White	5	21	11	6.618**
Non-white	10	12	3	(d.f. = 2)
Marital Status				
Single	5	9	3	0.516
Married	10	24	11	(d.f. = 2)
Education				
Less Than High School Diploma	3	5	1	
Less Than Two Years College	8	10	7	4.417
Two Years of College or More	4	18	6	(d.f. = 4)
Occupation				
Not Employed	6	10	4	
Unskilled and Semi-skilled	6	11	6	1.589
Skilled and Professional	3	12	4	(d.f. = 4)
Age				
19-25	4	11	4	
26-40	7	15	5	1.240
41 and Over	4	7	5	(d.f. = 4)

**Significant at .05 level

These data show how many trainees participated in each discussion group on the topic "Reactions to Selected Conditions," however the data do not show that some sessions were nearly dominated by a few trainees. Since the participant observer was debriefed by the project leader, who in turn summarized the discussion group information, there is no comment by comment data to show participation patterns. Also not shown by these data was the fact that while some trainees did not participate in the discussion groups on the topic dealing with the disadvantaged and prejudice, they may have participated on other discussion topics.

One can only speculate as to why a greater percentage of non-whites than whites did not contribute to the topic under consideration in the group discussions, especially since there were no significant relationships with the other independent variables. Since the white trainees as a group had a higher level of education and were employed in more skilled occupations, it might be that they had greater self-confidence in their knowledge and verbal ability to discuss the topic than did the non-white trainees. Verbal interaction on the topics of poverty and prejudice might have been different if the participant observers had been non-white. A look at amount of participation might have brought different results.

Hypothesis II: There is no relationship between awareness of prejudice as revealed in the discussion groups and the five independent variables:

a. race
b. marital status
c. education
d. occupation
e. age

Prejudice awareness as expressed in the discussions was significantly related to race and education at the .05 level and significantly related to occupation at a .10 level (Table 3). Marital status and age were not significantly related to the trainees' awareness of prejudice as expressed in the discussion groups. Of the forty-seven trainees who participated in the group discussions, fourteen either made no reference to prejudice or were oblivious of its existence, eighteen were aware of prejudice at the knowledge level and fifteen reported awareness of prejudice at the affective level.

On the basis of race, a greater number of white trainees (41 per cent) than non-white trainees (7 per cent) made no reference to prejudice or were oblivious of its existence. Thirty-eight per cent of the white trainees and 67 per cent of the non-white trainees were aware of prejudice at the knowledge level, while 53 per cent of the non-white trainees and only 22 per cent of the white trainees were aware of prejudice at the affective level (Table 3).

On the basis of education, 83 per cent of the trainees with less than a high school education were aware of prejudice at the affective or feeling level alone. The remaining 17 per cent were coded as being aware of prejudice at the knowledge or cognitive level. Of the trainees with less than two years of college, four (24 per cent) did not refer to prejudice or were oblivious of it, six (35 per cent) revealed an awareness of prejudice at the knowledge level and seven (41 per cent) were aware of prejudice at the affective level. Of the trainees with two years or more of college, 41 per cent did not refer to prejudice or were oblivious of its existence, 46 per cent were aware of prejudice at the knowledge level and only 13 per cent

TABLE 3

REFERENCE TO PREJUDICE IN GROUP DISCUSSIONS BY HEAD START TRAINEES AT KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY TRAINING SESSIONS, 1966

	Reference to Prejudice			
Independent Variables	No Reference or Oblivious	Aware at Knowledge Level	Aware at Affective Level	Chi Square
	N=14	N=18	N=15	
Race				
White	13	12	7	7.137** (d.f. = 2)
Non-white	1	6	8	
Marital Status				
Single	6	4	2	3.488 (d.f. = 2)
Married	8	14	13	
Education				
Less Than High School Diploma	0	1	5	12.539** (d.f. = 4)
Less Than Two Years College	4	6	7	
Two Years of College or More	10	11	3	
Occupation				
Not Employed	7	4	3	8.633* (d.f. = 4)
Unskilled and Semi-skilled	3	5	9	
Skilled and Professional	4	9	3	
Age				
19-25	6	4	5	1.611 (d.f. = 4)
26-40	5	9	6	
41 and Over	3	5	4	

**Significant at .05 level
*Significant at .10 level

were aware of prejudice at the affective level (Table 3). As education increased, there seemed to be fewer expressions of prejudice at the affective level, but more expressions denoting either a knowledge level awareness of prejudice or an unawareness of the problem.

In reference to occupation, 50 per cent of the trainees not employed did not refer to prejudice or were oblivious of its existence while 29 per cent were aware at the knowledge level and 53 per cent at the affective level. Twenty-five per cent of the skilled and professional group made no reference to prejudice, 56 per cent were aware at the knowledge level and only 19 per cent were aware of prejudice at the affective level (Table 3).

Persons employed in occupations requiring little skill in general were more aware of the existence of prejudice. Skilled and professional persons reported fewer experiences with prejudice (affective level) but greater knowledge of prejudice. The non-employed group included several women who were heads of household and had some college training, but had not attempted to find employment because they were welfare recipients. Experience in the work world seemed important. The type of employment open to people is closely tied to education. Those who were not employed were more likely to make reference to prejudice than those who were employed.

A contribution coded as being oblivious of prejudice came from Miss P.: single, 19 years old, white, non-employed, and a high school graduate. The participant observer discussed Miss P's. comments with the debriefer.

> She seemed to take a very definite stand on the question of identifying the children by race. Arguments were directed against her and she was forced to answer each argument as it

> came to her. She seemed bound and determined to stick to her guns and try to convince the others that it was "all right" for her to identify the children this way. Throughout the discussion she continued to stick to her guns about the "rightness" of identification by race, or color, or whatever. By the end of the hour there was a heated exchange among participants concerning whether the children in the nursery school and Head Start should be called Spanish and Negro. Finally, even after the bell rang, they could see that they really were not getting very far with Miss P., and in a dejected sort of way, they simply ended the discussion saying "you just don't understand."

The following examples were coded as knowledge level awareness of prejudice. The participant observer related an experience given by Mrs. H. and replied to by Mr. B. Mrs. H. was a 23-year-old, married teacher with some graduate work. Mr. B., a Negro trainee with a master's degree was also a teacher.

> Mrs. H. told about a Negro woman who had the same qualifications that she did. This woman was hired as an aide while Mrs. H. was hired as a teacher. Mr. B. commented "the problem was your skin was white while hers was black." He said there is a caste-like system in the United States. Mrs. H. asked "You mean on skin color?" Mr. B. replied "yes". Mrs. H. replied that the lighter one's skin is, the more likely he will find a job. Mr. B. stated that state and federal civil service have done a good job in decreasing discrimination of people because of their race. However, he feels that private industries and public utilities have a long way to go. Mr. B. said that if the poor white and the poor Negro would unite forces, a whole new system would evolve. He said much has been done in the past and the present to prevent these groups from uniting.

The debriefer recorded an example given by Mrs. B., a 38-year-old, divorced, non-employed, Negro trainee with two years of college:

> Mrs. B. pointed out that if a person "has it in himself" he can rid himself of poverty conditions and have the motivation to do better in his life instead of sticking out the conditions he was born into. She thought that they had plenty of opportunities if they had the initiative to go and look on their own.

Mr. F. was a 26-year-old, single, white, teacher with some graduate work. The participant observer noted Mr. F. made the first response to a comment about integration.

> He comes from a small Indiana town where there are few Negroes and few Mexican people, so he hadn't been conscious of how this integration business could come about. He is living in the dorm with a Negro and Mexican-American. He commented that it was not only the smoothness of living together, but the ability to talk about problems which they faced; colored and whites, and minority groups and majority groups, and the relationship between them.

Mrs. B., a white, 49-year-old married trainee with one year of college was also coded as being aware of prejudice at the knowledge level. The debriefer recorded that:

> ...she lived in the midst of prejudice, etc. and she was tired of talking about it. They talked about it everywhere; they talked about it in Mrs. M's. class, they talked about it in the dorm, at dinner time, etc. and that it was being repeated over and over again and she was tired of hearing about it. She was resentful of the whole discussion, of the things which were going on. Mrs. B. seemed to think that all this talk was getting out of hand. She pointed out that there was really no problem but the more you talked and dug at things, the more apt they would be to become problems. She was almost saying that the group itself by talking about it was making the problems. The group seemed to resent this suggestion, but half agreed with it. They pointed out to her that they couldn't understand how in the world she thought there wasn't any problem. Mrs. B. was quite upset, her parting word was the fact that they hadn't talked about a pleasant thing the past two weeks, at the dorm, in the rooms, at the table eating, or in class. All they talked about was prejudice. Even the dorm minister talked about prejudice. Her feeling was that it was sort of getting wagged to death and they would be better if they let it rest and stop talking so much about it so they could have time to cultivate some other topics of conversation and have some other outlets of their thinking.

Mrs. S. was a white, 57-year-old, married teacher with more than two years of college. The participant observer reported:

> Mrs. S. made the suggestion that people who were this prejudiced and who were in the process of learning to be comfortable with people of other cultures, should be guided into some work other than Head Start. She was certain that this woman to whom the group referred previously would not make a good Head Start teacher because of the attitude toward people of other cultures and races.

Coded as another cognitive level experience were the remarks made by Miss W., a white, 19-year-old college student.

> Miss W. said that her grandmother had come from Georgia and that they were quite prejudiced when she was raised and lived there. They had Negro workers, maids, etc. and when she first came to Denver to live with the W's, she wouldn't even ride on the same bus with a Negro. But as she lived in Denver and talked with the granddaughters and their family, she saw how comfortable they were with the Negro people and as the girls talked about their experiences with the Negroes, she has changed a great deal of her attitudes about Negroes and she doesn't mind as much now.

Awareness of prejudice at the affective level consisted of two aspects: (1) those who had had friends or acquaintances experience prejudice and those who had themselves experienced prejudice, and (2) whether the experiences were viewed as a "way of life" or with bitterness and hostility.

Coded as exemplifying bitterness or hostility were the following illustrations reported by the participant observer. Mrs. B. was a divorced, white, 34-year-old trainee with less than two years of college and a recipient of welfare payments.

> Mrs. B. commented about an experience she had staying with a low income family when she was a teacher. She found it hard to sleep and eat after having seen the home conditions. Later Mrs. B. commented that it seems to be the people on welfare who take the biggest digs even though others receive federal aid in the way of social security, farm subsidy, etc. The latter do not appear to be down-graded. Mrs. B., who is on welfare, stated that she gets so mad sometimes when people dig at her for being on welfare. She stated that she would like to ask them about farm subsidy or social security, but that she keeps quiet.

Miss W. was a single, 23-year-old Negro trainee with some college training and employed in a semi-skilled occupation.

> W's. comment was "It's not that we're not proud of our race, we just get tired of being called it all the time."

Mrs. J., a 34-year-old divorced, Negro trainee had less than a high school diploma and was employed in an unskilled occupation.

> Mrs. J. backed up her opinion by saying that if she had to make a presentation to a group about her race, about her people and their ways of thinking, she would probably have burst into tears. This would have been caused by her knowledge of what had happened to her race and all the things they had gone through--this was in answer to a question by Miss C. (participant observer) asking her why she would burst into tears.

Mrs. T., a 43-year-old, married, white trainee with less than a high school degree was unemployed.

> Mrs. T. interjected an experience into the conversation. She said that she knew a woman in the Head Start group and then she turned her head to Miss C. (participant observer) and said: "but I am not going to tell her name." She said this lady lives in a mixed community and has had a hard life and a lot of experience with Negroes and yet she is quite outspoken about her beliefs concerning the need for segregation. She says that white people ought to go to white's stores and Negroes should go to their stores. She believes that she will not be a bit prejudiced in this Head Start work because she loves the children, it is just the adult Negroes which she doesn't like. Miss C. was astounded by this and proceeded to verbalize some of her feelings which she felt accurately described or represented the feeling of the group. She wondered how in the world this person could work in a Head Start center where she had to work with these children and their families--how could she separate the children from the families? Mrs. T. went on to say that this woman pointed out that the Bible said that Negroes and whites should not mix. Miss C. asked if she were a religious woman and Mrs. T. said: "Indeed not, not the way she talks and not the things she does!" She said that she wouldn't want this lady teaching her children!

Mrs. L. was a 32-year-old Mexican-American with less than a high school degree and employed in an unskilled occupation. In response to a question by the group as to what the Mexican-Americans preferred to be called:

> Mrs. L. said that they did not want to be called Mexicans, they wanted to be called Spanish. When Miss C. (participant observer) asked why, Mrs. L. answered that people when they called them "Mexicans" were really calling them "dirty Mexicans."

Mrs. D., a 46-year-old, married, American-Indian teacher with three years of college related two experiences with prejudice.

> Mrs. D. said that it seemed to her that people with any "horse

> sense" at all would know better than to walk up to a person and ask them if they were Negro or Mexican or whatever they were. However, she reported that this had happened to her and people had asked her if she were a Negro or Mexican. It was almost as if she were saying, "It really doesn't matter who I am, but in some sections the discrimination is against Negroes, if you are a Mexican all is well." She seemed to be saying that people had to be sure of the national background of a person before they can know whether or not [to accept them] and the manner in which they are going to treat them.
>
> Mrs. D. also related the story of a Navajo Indian girl who left the reservation because she had a scholarship from a large university in the East. She got on the bus. She was forced to sit on the very back seat of the bus. Mrs. D. went on to say that at the very first bus stop the girl got up, got off the bus and went straight back to the reservation. Her comment was, "And can you blame her?"

Mrs. T., a 52-year-old, separated, unemployed, Negro trainee with less than two years of college voiced strong feelings about prejudice.

> According to her point of view [there was something unfair about] the influx of immigrants who must be guaranteed jobs before entering the country, whereas the Negro who has lived here all his life is made no such guarantee and often finds it impossible to get a job. She pointed out that when Negroes went to look for a job, employers asked, "Do you have any training?" If the answer is "no," the employer then, of course, had every right to say "We can't hire you." If the Negro says "Yes, I am trained," then the employer either went on to make other qualifications or said simply "I'm sorry, but this job is filled." It was almost as though Mrs. T. were saying it just doesn't make any difference if these people have training or not. People are not going to hire them. They are discriminated against in worthwhile jobs. However, it also seemed that part of her argument was that Negroes should be trained so that they might have the satisfaction of knowing that it was not their fault they did not get the jobs... that here was a white man who was a liar. It would sort of pull the white man down a bit and give the Negro an edge somehow on the white employer who lied to him about this job.

Mrs. E. was a 40-year-old Negro trainee who was married, employed in an unskilled occupation and had less than a high school degree. She had also experienced prejudice at the feeling level.

> Mrs. E. picked the conversation up and said that she was from the deep South and had learned to accept snubs from white people.

> She wouldn't dare approach a white person, or sit in the front part of the bus down there. Then she moved to Denver and saw that people were far more accepting than she was willing or used to being accepted. It took her some time to understand that the people were accepting of her. Then she said, when she came to M. she saw the kind of situation that she had seen in the deep South.

Only three trainees who had experienced prejudice at the affective level were coded as indicating prejudice was accepted as a "way of life." Two examples are illustrative of this level. Mrs. F., a white, divorced, 25-year-old high school graduate who was employed in an unskilled occupation fitted into this category.

> Mrs. F. reported that on one occasion, she saw one of the Negro women with whom she had been working in her own home, in the supermarket. Mrs. F. was with a friend, but stopped and chatted with the woman. Sometime later the Negro lady reported that this was the first time that a white person had stopped to talk to her in a public place when the white person had a friend with her. The Negro woman said that many times whites would talk with Negro people when they were alone, but not when they were with their own friends.

Another example was reported by Mrs. J., a 42-year-old, married, white trainee with less than two years of college and employed in a semi-skilled occupation.

> Mrs. J. gave an illustration of a thing which happened to her when she and her family were living in North Carolina. She said her son was playing in a Negro baseball league and really didn't know it was, but even after she learned about it her son stayed in it. A person came to her and told her that didn't she know the consequences of such things as associating with Negroes, and said someday the Ku Klux Klan would burn a cross on her front lawn. The amazing thing really about this was that none of the group asked her what she did. It was as if they were simply talking about the gory details of things that happened to people without saying "What do you do about this kind of thing?" Mrs. J. did say that this shocked and frightened her a great deal. But nobody said: "Well, did you take your boy out? Did they burn the cross or didn't they?"

As evidenced by the anecdotal illustrations presented, most of the trainees who reported a knowledge level awareness of prejudice were white, had two or more years of college and were employed in skilled or professional occupations. Most were married, a variable which neared a significant relationship (Table 7). The majority of the trainees who were aware of prejudice at the affective or feeling level were non-white, had less than two years of college and were employed in unskilled or semi-skilled occupations. Several were divorced or separated. Age ranged from 23 to 52 years, with the majority being in the 30's and 40's.

Hypothesis III: In a written essay "What I Know About Low Income Families," there is no relationship between reference to poverty in:

a. childhood
b. present personal conditions
c. present or past personal acquaintances
d. unknown or generalized others

and the five independent variables:

1. race
2. marital status
3. education
4. occupation
5. age

Essays entitled "What I Know About Low Income Families" written by forty-two Head Start trainees were scored according to the kinds of references made to poverty. Each category: reference to childhood, reference to present personal conditions, reference to present or past personal acquaintances, and reference to unknown or generalized others received either a "yes" or "no" rating. References of sixteen trainees fit only a single category; thirteen trainees made references which fell into three categories and only two trainees made references to poverty which covered all four categories.

Reference to Childhood

No significant relationship was found between reference to childhood and any of the independent variables. Nineteen Head Start trainees made reference to poverty in their childhood years and twenty-three trainees made no such reference. Almost equal numbers of married and single, white and non-white, and more and less educated trainees made reference to childhood experiences with poverty. However, among unskilled or semi-skilled trainees, twice as many made no reference to childhood experiences of poverty as those who made reference to such experiences. There was no such difference among the non-employed and skilled or professional groups. Nearly twice as many of the trainees in the age group 19 to 25 made no reference to childhood experiences as did, while in the age categories 26 to 40 and 41 and over, those who made some reference to childhood experiences of poverty and those who did not were equally divided (Table 4a).

From the data presented, it can be concluded that no differences occurred among groups with regard to the Head Start trainees' reference or lack of reference to childhood experiences with poverty. Three trainees, all Negroes with college degrees and employed in professional occupations, made reference only to childhood experiences of poverty.

Examples of references to poverty experiences in childhood are illustrated by the following examples:

Mr. C., a white, married, 50-year-old trainee with a master's degree and employed in a professional occupation said:

> I am one of 15 children and have first-hand experiences of poverty and the effects one might suffer from poverty. Food and clothing were limited in quality; however, my mother was very versatile in providing balanced meals from the garden and the fruit trees, along with canning and meat curing. The

TABLE 4a

REFERENCE TO POVERTY EXPRESSED IN ESSAY WRITTEN BY HEAD START TRAINEES AT KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY TRAINING SESSIONS, 1966

Independent Variables	Reference to Childhood Yes	Reference to Childhood No	Chi Square	Reference to Present Personal Conditions Yes	Reference to Present Personal Conditions No	Chi Square
	N=19	N=23		N=8	N=34	
Race						
White	11	12	0.137	5	18	0.239
Non-white	8	11	(d.f. = 1)	3	16	(d.f. = 1)
Marital Status						
Single	6	9	0.258	1	14	2.320
Married	13	14	(d.f. = 1)	7	20	(d.f. = 1)
Education						
Less Than High School Diploma	3	5		2	6	
Less Than Two Years College	7	10	0.714	4	13	0.990
Two Years College or More	9	8	(d.f. = 2)	2	15	(d.f. = 2)
Occupation						
Not Employed	7	7		5	9	
Unskilled and Semi-skilled	6	11	1.191	3	14	5.132*
Skilled and Professional	6	5	(d.f. = 2)	0	11	(d.f. = 2)
Age						
19-25	5	9		3	11	
26-40	9	9	0.769	3	15	0.124
41 and Over	5	5	(d.f. = 2)	2	8	(d.f. = 2)

*Significant at .10 level

clothes were patched, but clean.

Mrs. J. was a white, married, 42-year-old trainee with less than two years of college and employed in a semi-skilled occupation. She said:

> Growing up as a child I learned what low income was. When I was in grade school my father lost his job, no income from any source, my mother and father both were pretty upset. We had to turn to County Relief for awhile until my father found work. This was about a year.

Mrs. B., a 29-year-old, married, Negro with less than two years of college and employed in a professional occupation said:

> From the time I was born, I was told times and conditions were very hard. My father was a cook. Being Negro, it didn't help. We traveled from place to place in order to survive.

Miss T., a single, 23-year-old Mexican-American, was a college student. She wrote in her essay:

> Our family lived on the edge of the poverty area until I entered the fourth grade. We were forced to move because we began to raise hogs and other animals to help with our food supply and this was not allowed in the city limits. We moved to the country. In spite of our small farm and with twelve to fourteen persons living in a four-room house on less than $5,000 a year, we still had problems.

Mrs. C., a white, married, 40-year-old trainee with one year of college and employed in a semi-skilled occupation described her childhood experiences with poverty as follows:

> My own childhood by today's standards, was an experience in living in poverty - but it was not a damaging or unhappy experience. I can recall my parents concern as to how to pay for the next groceries, but we were never hungry. We wore shoes with holes in the soles for some time, but my mother remade all kinds of lovely little dresses from hand-me-downs for my sister and me.

Miss S., a trainee with two years of college, was white, single, 28 years old and employed in a professional occupation. She wrote:

> ...I have known times when it was necessary to sell the stove

> and refrigerator to pay the utilities and keep food on the table.

Mrs. B., a 61-year-old, white, widow with two years of college was a public school teacher. Her description of childhood experiences with poverty follows.

> I lived through the "Depression"...My father owned his own farm, but had sold it to a neighbor. The neighbor could not make the payments - and because of the moritorium, never did pay for it. My family suffered...My youngest sister earned 25 cents per week at a bakery and all the day old bread she wanted which was a godsend.

The above examples highlight the fact that a majority of the trainees who reported experiencing varying degrees of poverty during their childhood years had at least some post high school training. Only three of the nineteen trainees who made reference to poverty conditions in childhood did not complete high school. Apparently poverty during childhood was not a deterrant in obtaining at least a high school degree and additional training for most trainees. Also apparent was the fact that it was no more difficult to obtain post high school training during one time period than another. There was a feeling of strength in some examples while others simply dealt with the hardships.

Reference to Present Personal Conditions

Reference to present personal conditions of poverty by Head Start trainees in the essay "What I Know About Low Income Families" was significantly related to occupation at the .10 level, but was not significantly related to race, marital status, education or age. Eight (19 per cent) of the forty-two trainees made reference to present personal conditions of poverty and thirty-four made no reference to such conditions. Whether white or non-white, married or single, highly or poorly educated, young or old, 25 per cent or less of the trainees in each category made reference to their present conditions of poverty. Present employment was related to whether or not the trainees referred to such conditions. None of the trainees employed in skilled or professional occupations made reference in the essay to their present personal conditions, while 38 per cent of the trainees not employed made such references (Table 4a).

From the data presented, it may be concluded that poverty was not a personal problem for the majority of the trainees. Of the eight who made reference to poverty in their present situations, seven were married (three were divorced and one separated) and had an average of five children. Six had less than two years of college. As expected, more non-employed trainees made references to present conditions of poverty.

Illustrations of references to present personal conditions of poverty include the following excerpts from the essay "What I Know About Low Income Families."

Mrs. W., a white, divorced, 23-year-old mother of three children with less than a high school diploma and employed in an unskilled occupation said:

> I was married at the age of 16. I had three children in four years. Then we were divorced after five and a half years of marriage. My husband left before our divorce, and left us with $.20 to live on.
>
> I couldn't find work, but after eight months of being on welfare, I found a job. About a month later he started sending money.
>
> Then another stroke of bad luck, I lost my job, my ex-husband stopped sending money, my kids needed things that I knew I couldn't get and I was behind on rent. Because of all this I worried a lot of the time. I hated myself for the way I acted toward my kids.

Mrs. L., a Negro, divorced, 36-year-old trainee with three children had a college degree and was a homemaker. She wrote:

> ...After getting married and starting a family at an early age, I really didn't apply my college experience like I wanted to. One of the reasons was no jobs available and my small children. After my husband and I divorced, I had to go to welfare for assistance. Then I heard about the OEO.

Mrs. T. was a married homemaker with nine children. She was white, 43 years old and had a seventh grade education. Her reference to present personal conditions of poverty was:

> I have heard my children go to bed crying "I'm hungry," and cry myself to sleep. There is always that little prayer in the mothers heart, "Please God, give us strength."
>
> The children wonder why others have better clothes, more food, especially the fresh fruits and more costly foods. They wonder why can't they have $5.00 for insurance so they can play on "Little League Baseball."

These excerpts reveal that women who were heads of household and had several children expressed present concerns over poverty conditions. In summary, the majority of trainees made no reference to present personal conditions of poverty. Occupation type and reference to poverty in present personal conditions were significantly related at the .10 level. As expected, none of the trainees employed in skilled or professional occupations made reference to present conditions of poverty while 38 per cent of those not employed made reference to poverty in their present living conditions. One trainee devoted her entire essay to her present conditions of poverty.

Reference to Present or Past Personal Acquaintances

Reference to present or past personal acquaintances affected by poverty as revealed by the essay "What I Know About Low Income Families" was not significantly related to any of the independent variables. Of the forty-two trainees who completed the essay, twenty-nine (69 per cent) made some reference to poverty among present or past acquaintances while thirteen (31 per cent) made no such reference.

In terms of race, 78 per cent of the white and 58 per cent of the non-white trainees made some reference to poverty among present or past personal acquaintances. On the basis of marital status, 80 per cent of the single trainees and 63 per cent of the married trainees made reference to present or past acquaintance's experiences with poverty. The education variable revealed that from 63 to 71 per cent of the trainees in each category made some reference to poverty among present or past acquaintances. Occupationally, 86 per cent of the trainees with no employment, 59 per cent of those employed in unskilled or semi-skilled occupations and 64 per cent of the trainees with skilled or professional jobs made some reference to present or past acquaintance's experiences with poverty. In the age category 86 per cent of the trainees ages 19 to 25 made reference to poverty experienced by acquaintances. Fifty-six per cent of those in the age 26 to 40 and 70 per cent of the trainees 41 years of age or older made reference to present or past acquaintance's experiences with poverty (Table 4b).

The majority of the Head Start trainees made some reference to the poverty experienced by present or past acquaintances. However, the data do not reflect the depth of references made, nor the closeness of acquaintance. Some trainees merely mentioned they had known families afflicted by poverty while others made quite lengthy explanations about their knowledge of the experiences present or past acquaintances had with poverty.

TABLE 4b

REFERENCE TO POVERTY EXPRESSED IN ESSAY WRITTEN BY HEAD START TRAINEES AT KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY TRAINING SESSIONS, 1966

Independent Variables	Reference to Present and Past Acquaintances			Reference to Unknown or Generalized Others		
	Yes	No	Chi Square	Yes	No	Chi Square
	N=29	N=13		N=28	N=14	
Race						
White	18	5	2.019	17	6	1.201
Non-white	11	8	(d.f. = 1)	11	8	(d.f. = 1)
Marital Status						
Single	12	3	1.310	9	6	0.467
Married	17	10	(d.f. = 1)	19	8	(d.f. = 1)
Education						
Less Than High School Diploma	5	3		6	2	
Less Than Two Years College	12	5	0.198	11	6	0.309
Two Years College or More	12	5	(d.f. = 2)	11	6	(d.f. = 2)
Occupation						
Not Employed	12	2		9	5	
Unskilled and Semi-skilled	10	7	2.082	12	5	0.199
Skilled and Professional	7	4	(d.f. = 2)	7	4	(d.f. = 2)
Age						
19-25	12	2		8	6	
26-40	10	8	3.357	12	6	1.371
41 and Over	7	3	(d.f. = 2)	8	2	(d.f. = 2)

Excerpts of references to poverty experiences of present or past acquaintances made by the trainees on the essays follow. They were selected because they reflected several frames of reference and revealed a variety of poverty conditions.

Miss W., a single, 23-year-old Negro trainee with some college training and employed as a Head Start teachers' aide wrote:

> In my area most of the homes are 70 years old or more so you find middle-aged people who have their homes paid for and do not want to move, and income property or rentals and often we have neighbors moving in and out of these houses. There was a family which moved next door to us. The mother and three very small and cute boys. The mother worked and the big boy seemed to be the father, he took over the little ones. When the mother would leave, the big boy would come over and ask my mother if they could have some bread. Mother was quite shocked and put some jam on the bread and the little boy didn't seem to know what it was.

Mrs. E., a Negro, Married trainee was 40 years old, had less than a high school degree and was employed as a Head Start teachers' aide. She wrote:

> At the center where I work, I have really come in contact with the poverty poor. There is one family in particular I have really gotten to know well. Even though these people don't have very many material things, the mother tries to keep what she has very neat. She has eight children and is expecting the ninth. The father does construction work and this is seasonal. I think they would live better if they knew how.

Mrs. T., a white, married, 43-year-old trainee with a seventh grade education was a homemaker. She described some people she knew.

> I have been around the Cherokee Indians quite a bit and I have seen many children and adults with their feet wrapped in old cloth or burlap to keep them warm. Many of these children eat beans as a basic food for every meal. They exist mainly on foods that are in their growing season.
>
> Recently we fitted a family in our community with clothes. One of the boys was wearing girls clothes because they couldn't afford to buy any for him.

Mrs. S. was a 57-year-old, white, married trainee with one year of college and a homemaker. She wrote:

> Several Mexican families located in our community and worked for the railroad. They lived in several box cars along a railroad siding. Of course their language was different from ours, their clothing different and also their skin coloring. I can remember other children making fun of them because of those. It hurt my feelings because I also came from a family who didn't have a large income. On thing I shall always remember of the Mexican groups and my own home was this, there was cleanliness everywhere.

Mrs. W., a 23-year-old, white, married trainee was a college graduate and a teacher. She described her student teaching experiences.

> I did my student teaching...in the school on the other side of town as the more well to do families put it. My kindergarten children came from very low income families. They were poorly dressed, many were undernourished and many were amazed at the attention they were given by their superiors. We had some children who came and went as their parents moved from town to town trying to avoid bills.

Mrs. J. was a 23-year-old, divorced, Negro homemaker with two years of high school. She said:

> I've seen this family of low income. It was a broken home. The mother was never at home and the children had to stay at home by themselves and not know where their mother was. They were low on food and their health was bad. She drank a lot and you couldn't talk any sense into her. The children never went to school.
>
> She also had a smaller baby at home. Very seldom washed and when she did, she just as might as well not.

Miss G., a Negro trainee was 26 years old, single, and a teacher with a college degree. She described a family she knew.

> I know about a family, I mean a low income family, in Mississippi because I have lived there many years ago, where the mother had about eight children and no husband and the Welfare Department was not helping her. The reason I say was because she was having so many children. Every year she had a child. To me the children had a big problem because they did not have much food to eat. Nor good clothing to wear.

> I shall say this family's income was very low. Even the older children had to drop out of school and work to help their mother with the younger ones.

In summary, the Head Start trainees' reference to poverty among past or present acquaintances as reflected in the essay "What I Know About Low Income Families" was not significantly related to any of the independent variables. However, the majority of trainees did make some reference to poverty among present or past acquaintances and these references varied in depth of explanation. Six trainees made reference only to past or present personal acquaintances in discussing what they knew about low income families. Their race, marital status, education, occupation, and age varied widely.

Reference to Unknown or Generalized Others

Many Head Start trainees made reference to poverty on a general basis; presenting information from magazines, newspaper or television reports or from experiences related to them by others. This category was labeled reference to unknown or generalized others. No significant relationships were found between reference to unknown or generalized others and any of the independent variables. Two-thirds of the forty-two trainees who wrote the essay "What I Know About Low Income Families" made some reference to the poverty of unknown or generalized others.

Based on race, 74 per cent of the whites and 58 per cent of the non-whites made some reference to the poverty of unknown or generalized others. Analysis of the marital status variable revealed that 60 per cent of the single trainees and 80 per cent of the married trainees made some reference to this category of poverty. On the basis of education, 75 per cent of the trainees with less than a high school diploma and 65 per cent of the trainees in each of the categories; less than two years of college and two or more years of college referred to poverty in a generalized way. Occupationally, 64 per cent of the non-employed trainees; 65 per cent of those employed in skilled or professional occupations and 71 per cent of the trainees in unskilled or semi-skilled occupations made some reference to the poverty of unknown or generalized others. The age categories revealed that 80 per cent of the trainees in age groups 26 to 40 and 41 and over, but only 57 per cent of those in age group 19 to 25 made general references to poverty (Table 4b).

No significant relationships existed between the Head Start trainees' reference to poverty of unknown or generalized others as reflected in the essay and the five independent variables. However, it must be noted that two-thirds of the trainees made some reference to poverty of unknown or generalized others. Generalizations could not be drawn from this data since no distinct patterns emerged from any of the groups.

Excerpts of references to poverty of unknown or generalized others made in the essay "What I Know About Low Income Families" illustrate a variety of types of references.

Mr. C., a white, married, 50-year-old trainee with a master's degree and employed in a professional occupation wrote:

> I have profound faith that poverty can be replaced with advantages and opportunities now that our country has admitted existence of cultural differences, and a dedication to stop perpetuating generations of poverty and ignorance.

Miss W., a white, single, 19-year-old student with two years of college wrote:

> When I went to ... college I took a sociology course. We studied poverty and it helped me to understand it better. I've also read several articles in Reader's Digest and Life magazine. I think that the coverage in Life helped wake people up.

Mrs. T. was a 43-year-old, white, married trainee with less than a high school degree. She was a homemaker. In her essay she wrote:

> I have observed on many occasions that these people will grab at the chance to better themselves in any way that is put before them. A wonderful example is the people at ... They have a factory manned by transients and Indians. They are doing very well and expanding. Some families are settling down, buying a home and car. The parents and children alike are very pleased and happy.

Mrs. W., a married, 23-year-old, white trainee with a college degree was employed as a public school teacher. She wrote about the poverty of unknown others.

> I worked summers as a waitress in ... During this time I met many widowed or divorced people in the business who were the total support of their families. I learned a great deal about their problems from just listening to them talk about every day occurrences.

Mrs. W. was a married, 39-year-old, Negro elementary school teacher. She wrote:

> In working with low income families for a short period I found the most important needs were centered around their health habits, both physical and mental. Many didn't have a tooth brush or didn't know about regular eating habits. Their cooperation with other children was limited. Whatever they saw they wanted and the only way the knew to get it was to take it. The over-crowded living conditions affected their personality in many ways. Some of them realize their problems, but don't know how to handle them or where to get help.

Mrs. G., a white, married, 39-year-old, high school graduate was a homemaker. She described her community work.

> Since I have moved to ... I have gotten involved with a lot of community work. I have gone into homes of very low, almost no income families and have tried to give my assistance, in the 4-H and HDU field. I find so many of these to be broken homes with no desire to go ahead or to get ahead.

Mr. F., an elementary teacher with a college degree was white, single, and 26 years old. He wrote about his generalized impression of poverty.

> My first reaction to a low income situation was that of imagining a run-down little house where lazy adults and dirty children could be found. This is not the case! One may find lazy adults in a low income family, but one can also find the adult who despises work in an "upper class" home. One can find filth in the low income home, but again filth is not restricted to this group. One can find dirty children in any income home. For what is more fun for children to participate in than an activity that involves getting dirty.

Of the four categories dealing with reference to poverty in the essay "What I Know About Low Income Families" this was probably the most difficult to code because it included such a diversity of references. While some references were quite specific in nature, many were very general. Five trainees representing a variety of backgrounds made reference only to the poverty of unknown or generalized others.

Hypothesis IV: There is no relationship between the qualitative-quantitative aspects of poverty expressed in the essay "What I Know About Low Income Families" and the five independent variables:

a. race
b. marital status
c. education
d. occupation
e. age

The qualitative aspect of poverty was defined as placing more emphasis on quality of life (love, security, happiness, loneliness, sadness, etc.) while the quantitative aspect was defined as placing more emphasis on the material things in life (food, clothing, luxuries, etc.). The statistical analysis revealed no significant relationship between the qualitative-quantitative aspects of poverty as coded from the essays and any of the independent variables. However, marital status and education neared significance (Table 5).

For the variables race and age, trainees coded as referring mainly to either the quantitative aspect of poverty or the qualitative aspect of poverty were about equally divided in each category. For the marital status variable, two-thirds of the single trainees and 40 per cent of the married trainees were coded as emphasizing the quantitative aspect of poverty. On the basis of education, the majority of the trainees with less than a high school diploma (75 per cent) fit into the qualitative category. The trainees with less than two years of college were about equally divided between the qualitative and quantitative categories. About twice as many of the trainees with two years or more of college wrote about the quantitative aspects of poverty. In terms of occupation, nearly two-thirds of the trainees who were not employed emphasized the quantitative aspects of life while nearly two-thirds of those employed in unskilled or semi-skilled occupations were concerned with the qualitative aspects of life. The skilled and professional trainees were almost equally divided between the two categories (Table 5).

It might be speculated that the married trainees, of whom all except three had children, viewed the qualitative aspect of poverty from the framework of the quality of life they desired for their families. Perhaps the single trainees, since they had no one to be responsible for, placed greater emphasis on material things for themselves. In attempting to analyze the results revealed by the education variable, it seems reasonable to conclude that since all except one of the trainees with less than a high school diploma were married, they were more con-

TABLE 5

QUALITATIVE-QUANTITATIVE ASPECT OF POVERTY EXPRESSED IN ESSAY WRITTEN BY HEAD START TRAINEES AT KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY TRAINING SESSION, 1966

Independent Variables	Qualitative	Quantitative	Chi Square
	N=21	N=21	
Race			
White	11	12	0.096
Non-white	10	9	(d.f. = 1)
Marital Status			
Single	5	10	2.593
Married	16	11	(d.f. = 1)
Education			
Less Than High School Diploma	6	2	
Less Than Two Years College	9	8	3.530
Two Years College or More	6	11	(d.f. = 2)
Occupation			
Not Employed	5	9	
Unskilled and Semi-skilled	11	6	2.704
Skilled and Professional	5	6	(d.f. = 2)
Age			
19-25	7	7	
26-40	8	10	0.622
41 and Over	6	4	(d.f. = 2)

cerned about the quality of life they desired for themselves and their families. Trainees with the most education could have taken quality for granted and because of their awareness of prejudice at the knowledge level were more concerned with the inequalities of life. Or they could have been more desirous of extra material things than they were of the quality of life for themselves and others. It might also be that the trainees for whom material things appeared important had pursued additional education as a means of acquiring more material possessions.

Examples of trainees coded as emphasizing the qualitative aspect of poverty in the essay follow. Mr. C., a 50-year-old, white, married trainee with a Master's degree and employed in a professional occupation wrote:

> My early childhood development was by chance or local environment. Cleanliness, responsibility, dependability were to be learned in later years, however, morals and spiritual training received more attention than fundamental training for adult responsibility. I am sure that the love, although not always manifested, and the examples of honesty and hard work set by parents offset much of the handicap of poverty. In fact, until later years, I was not aware that we were poor and underprivileged as individuals or a family.

Mrs. F., a white, 25-year-old, divorced trainee with a high school diploma who worked as a Head Start staff aide said:

> I have never been truly "poor" in the sense that the people I work with are poor. I lack the attitudes of the poor I come in contact with. I am thinking of the attitudes they all seem to have in common such as suspicion of people who try to help them, a sense of hopelessness and immediate gratification.
>
> Another thing that is so often overlooked is the pride of the poor. If you take away their pride, they have nothing left. It is essential that they know you respect them and accept them for what they are and it is amazing the results you achieve because they do try to live up to your expectations.

Miss Z., a 20-year-old, single Mexican-American with less than two years of college was a Head Start teachers' aide. She expressed some of the negative aspects of life she has observed in her work.

> Their children say they don't have a future and so they believe that they work and live every day with weary and hungry in hate of people who have the right to become something. Their children have no manners, no respect for the society in itself. They're not willing to help others because they think to themselves, too many people, what, and not giving and they ask, "Why they don't help me?" or some other unmannerly remark.

Mrs. S., a white, 57-year-old, married homemaker with one year of college training expressed both negative and positive aspects about disadvantaged families. She wrote:

> Many of the families I know have a very deep pride, they try so very hard to get ahead, but seem to fall back. When they are offered assistance, they tend to reject it because they refuse to accept charity. It can easily be seen that such an attitude is not helping matters. I feel that children of such families have or develop a deeper appreciation for the finer things (clothes, types of recreation, school, etc.) in life and are willing to share them with other children in the family.
>
> I feel that there is a limited amount of expression, love especially, in this family group. Family gatherings and discussions are usually limited to eating time or when group work is required; in either case love is shown excessively just to one person, usually the youngest. From my locality, I get the impression that if the parent doesn't have any feelings towards self-improvement and there is a tendency to lean on welfare then the children in the majority of the cases develop the same attitude and end up in the same situations.

Mrs. C., a 41-year-old, white, married trainee with one year of college was employed in a semi-skilled occupation. She said:

> I have a feeling of admiration for the resourcefulness of most low income groups and peoples with whom I have come in contact. The children of these families often recognize how important their contribution to the family unit as a whole is. Their help is needed--as a babysitter, wage-earner, cook, whatever their task might be...
>
> To be poverty stricken, in my mind, is to not necessarily be unhappy, but to open doors of knowledge, increase opportunity

> to discover, learn, and enjoy, to help use resources available. For us to realize that, we can and must learn from them also.

Mrs. T., a 52-year-old Negro trainee who was separated from her husband, had less than two years of college and worked as a Community Action Program aide with the poorest people in a large Midwest city. She wrote:

> Low income families...are very suspicious. It is hard for them to trust anybody. They are so discouraged, they have lost hope. Where there isn't a father in the home, the mother depends on welfare. So she only gets enough to get by. If she gets outside work they will take it out of her check so she loses her self-respect and feels different from other people.

The following examples are excerpts from essays emphasizing the quantitative aspects of poverty. Miss W., a white, 19-year-old, single trainee with two years of college, had worked as a Head Start volunteer. She wrote:

> Working for Head Start has really shown me the most about low income families. Many of the children come from large families so don't get what other children get. They have only one pair of shoes, patched skirts, blouses and pants, and a jacket that has been handed down many times. Most of them are clean, but you can tell their parents just don't have the money to dress them well. When they do buy clothes, they buy them at cheap stores. Many families don't have cars, many are on welfare; several of the fathers are in prison, and the mothers have the whole responsibility. Most of the children aren't even acquainted with the foods that we are used to. They eat lots of starches and sweets.

Mrs. B., a white, married, 49-year-old trainee with one year of college and employed as a teachers' aide quantitatively described families she has helped.

> This one family we helped this past Christmas was in great need... The children that were school age could not attend as they did not have clothing for winter. The food supply was gone. So after a clothing drive and food being brought by individuals so that a big basketful was ready, they were delivered to the family. One little child that saw the two cartons of eggs on top of the basket remarked "Oh mommy, now I can have an egg to eat."

> We have helped families, usually broken homes, that had no utilities as they had no money to pay them and the utilities had been turned off. We have been in homes where there was not a floor covering of any kind.

Mrs. C. was a white, divorced, 35-year-old homemaker with an eighth grade education. She told about her experiences as a Head Start volunteer.

> Some of the children I worked with in "Headstart" last summer were really deprived of good food and milk, some had never been to a doctor. Some didn't know what to do when they saw so many toys, puzzles, and books because it was something new to most of them.

Miss M., a 19-year-old, single, Mexican-American with less than two years of college and employed as a teachers' aide wrote about her observations concerning poverty.

> I have seen some families where they have been without clothes or food or shoes. I had been working as a teachers' aide and occasionally a student was absent - not of sickness - but because his clothes or shoes were worn out that they could not be used any more.

Mr. A., a white, single, 21-year-old college student wrote about his experiences with disadvantaged families.

> My father and mother have owned and operated a grocery store since I was 5 years of age in a rural area. I have seen people come to the store and buy hardly nothing to live on for long lengths of time (usually a month). I used to take groceries to their homes and see dirty homes, poor lighting, in general a poor atmosphere in which they lived. Children not dressed properly or even without coats during the winter months and some with sandles in the snow.

Mr. B., a single, Negro trainee who was 36 years old, had a Master's degree and was a teacher wrote about his own experiences with poverty.

> I was born in a small southeastern ... town in 1930. My father worked on the WPA. While the program continued to offer a job for most of the poor families' bread winner, it lacked in its ability to provide enough money for a family of six. Most of

> our food came from rations, which were issued weekly. Our shoes came from welfare organizations, and we had one pair of shoes to last a year, and during the summer months we went bare-footed.

Mr. B., a Negro, married, 29-year-old trainee with one year of college and employed in a professional occupation also described his own experiences with poverty. He wrote:

> When I was large enough to work I started in the fields (cotton fields). There I worked until I was eighteen and went into the Army. There I got what I would describe as the best food I ever ate. They say Army chow is bad but it was paradise for me. So I think that after eating out of everything (at one time) I know of some of the low income group's problems. We had sickness too bad to describe.

Mrs. C., a 37-year-old, Negro trainee was a high school graduate, separated from her husband, and a homemaker. In her essay, which was also coded as emphasizing the quantitative aspects of poverty, she wrote:

> I came from a low income family. They had to go out and work for $3.00 a week. Didn't have washing machine had to wash on the washboard and carry water from the well. And had to iron with smoothing iron because they had no electric irons. And had to burn kerosene lamp to see by and had to make garden and raise vegetables because they was not making enough money to buy food and also raise chickens and pigs and did not have rugs on the floors. Had to scrub on their knees.

Miss B., a 20-year-old, white, single, college student also emphasized the material aspects of poverty in her essay.

> We live in a small farm community. When we moved there in 1956 we were the only ones with running water and indoor toilet facilities. About one-third of the homes had electricity. There weren't welfare cases because all the food was grown on the farm and clothes made in the homes. Every child had enough to eat and warm clothes on their back. They just didn't have the money to install "modern" living devices.
>
> We attended a one room school house and sat around the stove to keep warm in the winter. I really don't know what it is like to go without food or heat, but I don't know what it is like to have luxuries either.

These anecdotal excerpts from the essays "What I Know About Low Income Families" revealed the majority of trainees who emphasized the qualitative aspects of poverty were, or had been married and had children. Many had worked in a variety of capacities with the disadvantaged, mostly as paraprofessionals. Several mentioned experiencing a sense of pride among the poor which complicated their efforts to help these people.

While some trainees wrote either about the positive or negative effects poverty had on the quality of life of disadvantaged families, others wrote about both the positive and negative aspects of the quality of life of the disadvantaged.

The anecdotal illustrations revealed the younger and single trainees who wrote mainly about the quantitative aspect of poverty, dealt mostly with childhood experiences in which food and clothing were the main source of family concern. Many others who emphasized the quantitative aspect had worked with the disadvantaged either voluntarily or as teachers' aides with the Head Start program where lack of material things was most obvious.

Hypothesis V: There is no relationship between attitude scores attained on the Operation Head Start Worker's Attitude Scale and the five independent variables:

a. race
b. marital status
c. education
d. occupation
e. age

The Operation Head Start Worker's Attitude Scale (Appendix p. 85 was completed by thirty-seven of the sixty-two trainees attending the training sessions at Kansas State University. Scores ranged from 99 to 143 points. The scores attained on this scale were divided into two groups: those who scored at the mean or below and those who scored above the mean. Higher scores reflected more positive attitudes toward disadvantaged people. Sixteen trainees (43 per cent) scored at the mean or below and twenty-one trainees (57 per cent) scored above the mean.

There was no significant relationship between scores and any of the five independent variables (Table 6). However as the data was analyzed, some patterns were evident.

White trainees were as apt to score above the mean as at the mean or below. Nearly two-thirds of the non-white trainees scored above the mean. There was no difference in scores of single and married trainees, those with less than a high school diploma or with less than two years of college, and trainees either not employed or employed in unskilled or semi-skilled occupations. Nearly two-thirds of the trainees with two or more years of college and slightly over two-thirds of those employed in skilled or professional occupations scored above the mean. The majority of the trainees in age groups 19 to 25 and 41 and over scored above the mean while the majority of those in age group 26 to 40 scored at the mean or below (Table 6).

It is interesting to note that all trainees agreed with the following items:

1. I would enjoy working with poor people to help them better their lives.
2. The city, state and federal government should do all it can in trying to help poor people with their money.

TABLE 6

ATTITUDE SCALE SCORES FOR HEAD START TRAINEES AT KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY TRAINING SESSIONS, 1966

Independent Variables	Mean and Below	Above Mean	Chi Square
	N=16	N=21	
Race			
White	12	14	0.302
Non-white	4	7	(d.f. = 1)
Marital Status			
Single	4	5	0.007
Married	12	16	(d.f. = 1)
Education			
Less Than High School Diploma	3	2	
Less Than Two Years College	8	10	0.906
Two Years College or More	5	9	(d.f. = 2)
Occupation			
Not Employed	5	4	
Unskilled and Semi-skilled	8	10	1.281
Skilled and Professional	3	7	(d.f. = 2)
Age			
19-25	5	8	
26-40	7	4	2.809
41 and Over	4	9	(d.f. = 2)

3. Just about every type of personality can be found among the poor.

All except one trainee agreed with the statement:

It's hard for an able-bodied man to respect himself if he doesn't work.

All trainees disagreed with the statements:

1. Poor people are less trustworthy than people with more money.

2. Most poor people are poor because they are lazy.

All except one trainee disagreed with the statements:

1. I would be embarrassed to introduce a poor person to my friends.

2. How much money a person makes is usually a good indicator of his character.

3. There is little that can be done to help the poor to better themselves short of taking care of them or giving them money.

The item which revealed the greatest range of responses was:

Poverty is largely a function of bad luck, injustice, or discrimination.

Other items in which there was a diversity of responses were:

1. In general, poor people lack intelligence.

2. Poor people tend to be as interested in their children as are people with more money.

3. In general, the behavior of poor people tends to be erratic and unpredictable.

4. Poor people are inherently different from people who have more money.

In summary it might be concluded that while there were no significant relationships between scores attained on the Operation Head Start Worker's Attitude Scale and the five independent variables, some attitude patterns were evident.

The majority of non-white trainees, trainees with two or more years of college, those employed in skilled or professional occupations and ages 19 to 25 and 41 and over revealed the most positive attitudes toward disadvantaged people on the Operation Head Start Worker's Attitude Scale. Since attitude scales of any type are subject to revealing "expected" attitudes rather than "real" attitudes, it was anticipated that the trainees with more education, many of whom were also employed in skilled or professional occupations, might score higher than those with less education and thus less skilled jobs, either because they knew what attitudes were more acceptable or because they had a better understanding of the disadvantaged, their strengths and weaknesses.

Since the majority of the non-white trainees revealed more positive attitudes toward poverty, it might be that because of their experiences with prejudice as reported in the informal group discussions which was significantly related to race (Table 7), or their work among the disadvantaged gave them better perspective for answering the questions on the Operation Head Start Worker's Attitude Scale.

TABLE 7

CHI SQUARE PROBABILITIES FOR VARIABLES IN STUDY OF HEAD START TRAINEE ATTITUDES TOWARD DISADVANTAGED FAMILIES AT KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY TRAINING SESSIONS, 1966

	Independent Variables					
Dependent Variables	Race	Marital Status	Education	Occupation	Age	Number of Subjects
			Chi Square Probabilities			
Amount of Participation	0.037**	0.772	0.352	0.811	0.871	62
Reference to Prejudice	0.028**	0.175	0.014**	0.071*	0.801	47
Reference to Poverty						
Childhood	0.711	0.611	0.700	0.551	0.681	42
Present Personal Conditions	0.239	0.128	0.610	0.077*	0.940	42
Pres. and Past Acquaintances	0.155	0.252	0.906	0.247	0.187	42
Unknown or Generalized Others	0.273	0.495	0.857	0.905	0.504	42
Qualitative-Quantitative Aspect	0.757	0.107	0.171	0.259	0.733	42
Attitude Scale	0.582	0.933	0.636	0.527	0.245	37

**Significant at .05 level
*Significant at .10 level

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A study was made of Head Start trainee attitudes toward disadvantaged families. The subjects were sixty-two Head Start trainees who participated in one of three eight-week training sessions conducted by the Department of Family and Child Development at Kansas State University from February through August, 1966. Both statistical and descriptive methods of analysis were used.

An information checklist completed by each trainee provided data for five independent variables: race, marital status, education, occupation and age. This data and supplementary data were used for the statistical analysis. Proceedings of informal group discussions and an essay entitled "What I Know About Low Income Families" were quantified for use as dependent variables. An Operation Head Start Worker's Attitude Scale also provided data for a dependent variable.

Descriptively, thirty-seven trainees were white and twenty-five were non-white. Of the non-white trainees, eighteen were Negro, six were Mexican-American and one was an American Indian. Forty-five of the trainees were or had been married at the time of training. Educational level ranged from seventh grade through graduate degrees. Twenty-eight of the trainees had completed two or more years of college. Twenty trainees were not employed prior to coming to the training sessions. Twenty-nine trainees had public school teaching experience.

Forty-nine trainees planned to return to Head Start or CAP jobs when they completed the training sessions. The remainder hoped to obtain such employment. Ages ranged from nineteen to sixty-nine years.

This study was basically intuitive in nature since no research design was used in collecting the data. Limitations were:

1. This study was ex post facto in nature, thus both values and weaknesses must be recognized.
2. The sample was limited to sixty-two Head Start trainees. Only seven trainees were male, thus eliminating sex as an independent variable.
3. A limited amount of background data available on the trainees reduced the number of independent variables. For example, rural-urban childhood residence would have been an interesting factor to consider.
4. Discussion group data were available for all groups. Essays were available only for the first and second groups, while attitude scales were given only to the second and third groups. Complete data for only one group limited the statistical analyses in terms of the number of observations to test each hypothesis.
5. Statistical testing of the hypotheses was limited to chi square analysis because data was primarily qualitative. Classifications within each variable were condensed more than desired to approach the requirement of five observations per cell in the chi square contingency table (Yamane, 1964).

Relationships between Head Start trainee attitudes toward poverty and prejudice and five independent variables were statistically tested. Independent variables were race, marital status, education, occupation and age. Dependent variables included: (1) the amount of participation by each trainee in the informal group discussions on the topic "Reactions to Selected Conditions," (2) awareness of prejudice as revealed in the group discussions, (3) reference to poverty in: (a) childhood, (b) present personal conditions, (c) present or past personal acquaintances, (d) unknown or generalized others in the essay "What I Know About Low Income Families," (4) emphasis on the qualitative or quantitative aspects of poverty as revealed in the essay "What I Know About Low Income Families," and (5) scores attained on the Operation Head Start Worker's Attitude Scale.

The categories for the second, third and fourth variables were determined by content analysis. Anecdotal excerpts from both the informal discussion groups and essays illustrated themes which predominated and the variation in responses among trainees.

Race was significantly related to amount of participation on the topic "Reactions to Selected Conditions" dealing with poverty and prejudice in the discussion groups. There was greater participation from whites than non-whites. Since the white trainees as a group had a higher level of education and were employed in more skilled occupations, it might be that they had greater self-confidence in their knowledge and verbal ability to discuss the topic than did the non-white trainees. Non-whites also might have had greater identity with problems of prejudice causing them to withhold participation.

This conclusion is supported in part by the fact that both race and education were significantly related at the .05 level to awareness of prejudice expressed in the group discussions. Occupation was significantly related to awareness of prejudice at the .10 level. The majority of non-white trainees was aware of prejudice at the affective or feeling level. Boger (1967) concluded that Negro and Mexican-American teachers' experiences and understanding might cause them to show greater identity with, and enthusiasm for, involvement in the Head Start program. As education increased, there seemed to be fewer expressions of prejudice at the affective level, but more expressions denoting either a knowledge level awareness of prejudice or an unawareness of the problem. Persons employed in less skilled occupations were more aware of prejudice at the affective level. Skilled or professional persons reported greater knowledge of prejudice, but fewer experiences with it. Helge and Pierce-Jones (1968) reported the more general the experience of the teachers they studied, the more stable and positive were their attitudes regarding awareness of the effects of cultural deprivation. This might mean that the teachers could be aware, but in some way seem apart from these experiences and perhaps bring more objectivity to the situation. The type of employment open to people is closely associated with education. Those who were not employed were more likely to make no reference to prejudice than those who were employed.

No significant relationships were found between the independent variables and the references of the trainees to poverty during childhood in the essay "What I Know About Low Income Families." The majority of the trainees employed in unskilled or semi-skilled occupations and ages 19 to 25 made no reference to poverty experiences in childhood. Slightly more trainees who were non-white, single, or had less than two years of college made no reference to childhood experiences of poverty.

Reference to present personal conditions of poverty in the essay "What I Know About Low Income Families" was significantly related to occupation. Only eight of the forty-two Head Start trainees who wrote the essay made any reference to present personal conditions of poverty. None of the trainees employed in skilled or professional occupations made reference to present personal conditions of poverty, while 38 per cent of those not employed made reference to poverty in their present living conditions.

References to poverty of present or past personal acquaintances and unknown or generalized others in the essay "What I Know About Low Income Families" were not significantly related to any of the independent variables. The majority of the trainees in each category made some reference to both poverty experienced by present or past acquaintances and poverty of unknown or generalized others.

No significant relationship was found between the qualitative-quantitative aspects of poverty in the essay "What I Know About Low Income Families" and the five independent variables. However, relationship between this variable and marital status and education approached significance. Married trainees and those with less education placed more emphasis on the qualitative aspects of poverty. Single trainees and those with the most education tended to place more emphasis on the qualitative aspect of poverty. Since all except one of the trainees with less than a high school diploma were married, they were apparently more concerned about the quality of life they desired for themselves and their families.

The Operation Head Start Worker's Attitude Scale scores measuring attitudes toward disadvantaged families were not significantly related to any of the five independent variables. The majority of non-white trainees, trainees with two or more years of college, those employed in skilled or professional occupations and aged 19 to 25 and 41 and over revealed the most positive attitudes toward disadvantaged families. Since race was significant with respect to reference to prejudice in the group discussions, it might be concluded that the non-white trainees' experiences with prejudice or their work among the disadvantaged gave them a better frame of reference for answering the questions on the attitude scale. This partially substantiates the conclusions by Gottlieb (1964) and Faunce (1969) that Negro teachers and teachers who came from low income backgrounds held more favorable attitudes toward disadvantaged children because they had greater personal identification with the problems of poverty and prejudice. Trainees with more formal education perhaps had more knowledge of disadvantaged families and/or knew what answers were socially acceptable.

Bettelheim and Janowitz (1964) in a non-research oriented book suggested that younger persons are less prejudiced than older persons due in part to the fact that younger persons are more likely to have an education compatible with ethnic tolerance. Since age was not found to be significantly related to any of the dependent variables, the claim can neither by supported nor denied by this study. These same authors hypothesized that persons in the lower socio-economic classes and those with less education tend to express more prejudice. The results of this study indicate persons with less education tended to reveal more expressions of prejudice at the affective level. As education increased there were more knowledge-level expressions of prejudice.

In this study race, education and occupation were the most important indicators of Head Start trainee opinions and attitudes toward poverty, prejudice and disadvantaged families. The group discussion data provided a greater number of significant relationships. However, the essay also provided important and interesting subjective information.

The group discussions, attitude scale and essay might be useful tools for tapping the opinions and attitudes of poorly education people, allowing them to express their feelings in a non-threatening manner. The essay could give training session personnel a feeling for the people attending the training sessions, permitting them to help the trainees start where they are in the learning process.

The lack of research information on attitudes of people toward the disadvantaged revealed the need for innovative research. Some of the instruments and methods for obtaining data in this study were apparently unique in the study of attitudes. Future investigators might benefit from the use of content analysis as a means of quantifying discussion group data and essays. Hereford (1963) used discussion group data as a means of determining changes in attitudes and behavior in the area of parent-child relations. Individual differences between participant observers might alter types and amount of discussion group participation. Essays written very early in the training period could serve as an introduction to the area and avoid professional and peer influences. Essays on the same topic written at the end of the training period might measure short-term attitude changes initiated by formal training. Item analysis of the attitude scale would greatly enhance its value.

Evaluation of the design and results of this study reveals its contribution to attitude research and at the same time discloses weaknesses. Although the scope and design of the study limited its findings, it can be concluded the Head Start trainees had a wide variety of backgrounds, experiences, and values. Their perceptions of poverty, prejudice and the disadvantaged varied widely. Effective means of determining these attitudes could enhance selection of future trainees. Studies by Levan (1968), Arizona State University (1968), and Durrett (1969) all indicated positive shifts in attitudes dealing with the understanding of disadvantaged children by trainees undergoing various types of training programs. Since short-term training merely highlights relevant aspects of the Head Start program, it is important that the college training staff know what attitudes trainees possess about the disadvantaged in order to ascertain the most effective means of teaching these people.

Further research might investigate the relationship between short-term attitudinal changes and long-term changes, and whether these attitudinal changes are accompanied by behavioral changes. Other studies might focus on the motivations and characteristics of persons interested in working with the Head Start program or other programs designed primarily to assist disadvantaged families. Another report might deal with studies on the effectiveness of Head Start personnel on the job, their frustrations and/or satisfactions and their evaluation of the usefulness of Head Start training sessions.

APPENDIX

Head Start Training Session in Early Childhood Development

Name______________________________ Date_______________

Home Address______________________________ Phone________

City____________________________ State________________

Birthdate__________________________
Day Month Year

Father's Occupation______________________________________

Check one: Married______ Divorced_______ Widow_____

Single______ Separated______

Ages of Childres: Boys ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____

Girls ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ ____

Education:

_____ Some school

_____ Finished 3rd grade

_____ Finished 6th or 7th grade (grammar school)

_____ 1, 2, or 3 years high school (circle which)

_____ Graduate from high school; Date__________________

_____ 1, 2, or 3 years college

_____ Graduated from college; Date_____________ Degree_____

Major______________________________

_____ Some graduate work; Date_________. No. hours____ Area______

_____ Completed graduate degree; Date______________

Degree_________ Major______________________

_____ Business College Graduated?_____

_____ Nurses Training RN_____; Practical_____

_____ Nurses' Aide

_____ Beauty School

_____ Other: What?______________________

Your work (before coming to Manhattan):______________________________

Husband's work:____

Work experience: (Start with first job to present)

Employed
Year Job

From ______ to ______ ____

From ______ to ______ ____

From ______ to ______ ____

From ______ to ______ ____

From ______ to ______ ____

Volunteer (Start with first job to present)

From ______ to ______ ____

From ______ to ______ ____

From ______ to ______ ____

From ______ to ______ ____

From ______ to ______ ____

Connection with Child Development Centers or CAP: (Tell what job you have had or will have. Tell how you became involved in the Training Session).

Name of Agency employed by: ____

Position:____

Hobbies or special interests:

Have you seen a good movie lately? _____ Name:_________________________

Or read a good book?_____ Title:_______________________________

Or seen a good TV program?______ What:____________________________

Or had a good conversation with a friend?_____ Why do you define it as

good?____

Or completed a job you had to do?_____ What:_______________________

____

Or discovered a new idea? _____ What:______________________________

____

Or been creative in any way? _____ How:____________________________

____

OPERATION HEAD START WORKER'S ATTITUDE SCALE

Part I

The following statements have no right or wrong answers. All that is required is that you give your honest reaction to each question. After reading each statement, simply check (√) the alternative that indicates your own opinion. After reading each statement, make one of the following five choices:

Strongly Agree, Agree, Not Sure, Disagree, Strongly Disagree

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I would enjoy working with poor people to help them better their lives	____	____	____	____	____
2. Poor people tend to behave in childish ways.	____	____	____	____	____
3. Poverty is largely a function of bad luck, injustice, or discrimination.	____	____	____	____	____
4. I would be embarrassed to introduce a poor person to my friends.	____	____	____	____	____
5. Poor people are less trustworthy than people with more money.	____	____	____	____	____
6. In general, poor people lack intelligence.	____	____	____	____	____
7. The city, state, and federal government should do all it can in trying to help poor people better their lives.	____	____	____	____	____
8. Poor people tend to be as interested in their children as are people with more money.	____	____	____	____	____
9. Violent behavior characterizes the poor.	____	____	____	____	____
10. Most poor people do not know what they want out of life.	____	____	____	____	____

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
11. Poor people deserve as much consideration and respect as anyone else.	____	____	____	____	____
12. Most poor people are poor because they are lazy.	____	____	____	____	____
13. It's hard for an able-bodied man to respect himself if he doesn't work.	____	____	____	____	____
14. Immoral practices are much more common among the poor.	____	____	____	____	____
15. We should try to help only those who appreciate our help.	____	____	____	____	____
16. Just about every type of personality can be found among the poor.	____	____	____	____	____
17. Poverty is a sign of failure in life.	____	____	____	____	____
18. Poverty is quite often due to lack of self-control, will-power, or the desire to get ahead.	____	____	____	____	____
19. Poor people would improve themselves if they were given additional opportunities.	____	____	____	____	____
20. How much money a person makes is usually a good indicator of his character.	____	____	____	____	____
21. There is little that can be done to help the poor to better themselves short of taking care of them or giving them money.	____	____	____	____	____
22. Most poor people are willing to work hard if given the opportunity.	____	____	____	____	____
23. In general, the behavior of poor people tends to be erratic and unpredictable.	____	____	____	____	____

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
24. Poor people don't care how they look.	____	____	____	____	____
25. It is the responsibility of people who are well-off to help poor people better themselves.	____	____	____	____	____
26. Poor people tend to be loud, vulgar and impolite.	____	____	____	____	____
27. Poor people will take advantage of you if you give them the opportunity.	____	____	____	____	____
28. It would be all right with me to have a poor person as a close friend.	____	____	____	____	____
29. Poor people are inherently different from people who have more money.	____	____	____	____	____
30. Poor people should have something to say about how the government spends money to help them.	____	____	____	____	____

HEAD START TRAINING SESSION

CODE SHEET FOR DISCUSSION TOPICS*

I. Child rearing practices
  A. With own children
  B. Own childhood
  C. As related to socio-economic class
  D. Other

II. Head Start Training Program
  A. Academic concerns
    1. Observation
      a. KSU Nursery School
      b. Head Start Nursery School
    2. Class work, assignments
    3. Field trips
    4. Speakers, films, other resources
    5. Other (time limits, ACL, etc.)
    6. Group Discussions
  B. Administrative concerns
    1. College credit
    2. Payment, obtaining checks
    3. Other (how they got here--selection, scheduling, transportation, car arrangements)

III. Professional concerns
  A. Past employment
    1. Head Start Programs (CAP, HDC, and other allied Federal agencies)
      a. Working with children
      b. Working with adults (co-workers)
      c. Working with parents
      d. Other (plans, uncertainty, community concerns)
    2. Other employment (teaching, etc.)
  B. Future (and present) employment
    1. Head Start Programs (CAP, HDC, and other allied Federal agencies)
      a. Working with children
      b. Working with adults (co-workers)
      c. Working with parents
      d. Other (plans, uncertainty, community concerns)
    2. Other employment possibilities, plans (teaching, etc.)
  C. Qualifications, duties for professionals, standards for agencies, agency policies

IV. Group interaction and contribution
  A. Head Start group
  B. Other groups

V. Extra-class experiences
    A. Dormitory
    B. Week-end plans, and activities organized by Head Start people, parties, etc.
    C. Student Health and other campus agencies and activities, games, etc.
    D. References to family and home (personal)
    E. Other

VI. Reactions to Selected Conditions
    A. Poverty and cultural deprivation
        1. Own condition of poverty
        2. Feelings, attitudes toward other's poverty or expressions from others
    B. Prejudice
        1. Own experiences with prejudice, segregation
        2. Feelings, attitudes toward prejudice, other's experiences
    C. Education
    D. Communication
    E. Other (conformity, economic systems, creativity, politics, fear, etc.)

VII. Effect of Head Start participation
    A. Impact on home
        1. Present impact
        2. Future expectations
    B. Own attitudes, changed or not
    C. Other (neighbors, etc.)

VIII. Evaluation
    A. Members of Head Start by staff
        1. Tests, day-to-day evaluation, attitudes
        2. Overall evaluation
    B. Of program by trainees
    C. Of each other and of self
    D. Of teachers and other professionals

*Marjorie Stith and Patricia Helm. Unpublished information. 1966. Kansas State University, College of Home Economics, Department of Family and Child Development.

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